

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE ONTARIO COLLEGE OF TEACHERS

by

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for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy
Department of Theory and Policy Studies in Education
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The Development of the Ontario College of Teachers

Doctor of Philosophy, 1998

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Abstract

This study examines the development of the Ontario College of Teachers (OCT) and teachers' response to it. The goal of the study is to determine the factors that assist or hinder one particular group's move to self-governance and to contribute to the understanding of professionalism among teachers and their growing awareness of self-governance.

The first part of the research describes the development of the OCT as a self-regulating body by focussing on professional learning and accountability and traces these two aspects over time since the early 1800s in Ontario. It compares the OCT with two existing self-governance bodies in Scotland and British Columbia and examines the factors supporting and resisting a college of teachers concept.

The quantitative, descriptive second part of the research identifies a sample of teachers' perceptions of the OCT and what impact teachers believe the College will have on them personally and professionally. The four grouped determinants used were Professional Standards, Professional Learning, Accountability, and Self-governance.

The writer developed and tested the questionnaire used to determine the teachers' perceptions. The data were analysed using descriptive statistics to indicate frequencies and distributions, Chi-Square Test (χ^2), the Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs Signed-Ranks Test, the Friedman Test for Related Sample, Cronbach's alpha (α), and ANOVA.

The highly experienced, highly educated sample of teachers averages 18.3 years of teaching and 95.5% have a Bachelor's degree or higher. Such teachers' demographics as age, experience, etc. influenced their responses of support or opposition. Initially, 29% favoured the OCT idea, 35% were undecided and 39% were opposed; at the time of the study, 23% favoured the concept, 16% were undecided, and 61% were opposed.

Teachers favour some aspects of a professional governance body; they believe that the profession is able to set and enforce professional standards. They show general support for self-regulation and responsibility tempered with a degree of uncertainty. Teachers both strongly support and strongly oppose the constituent items on the professional learning scale. The majority of teachers oppose this particular model of self-governance, although many are not opposed to a self-regulating body.

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This study would not have been possible without the active participation of the teachers who responded to the survey. Many spent much time in reflecting on the questions and providing comments and information as requested. It again confirms that teachers are dedicated and committed to improving the education system in which they participate.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

There have been many studies which have focussed on education in Ontario and each has commented on teachers and teaching, some stating (as the 1995 Royal Commission on Learning) that the single most important element to improving the quality of education and student learning is the professionalization and continuous professional learning of teachers. Since the days that Egerton Ryerson worked to develop a publicly-funded education system for all pupils, improvement of teaching in elementary and secondary education has been sought by establishing ever more rigorous standards for entrance into teacher training institutions, upgrading working conditions for students and teachers, upgrading teachers' qualifications, and providing additional resources for students and teachers. Governments, teachers' federations, school boards, and individual teachers have all contributed to these improvements. Many of these reports (Living and Learning (1967), Final Report of the Teacher Education Review Steering Committee (1988), For the Love of Learning (1994)) discuss the desirability of having a governance structure, a college of teachers, a body in which the teachers would have responsibility for their self-governance. At times, the government did not favour the idea; at times, the teachers' federations did not respond favourably. This thesis will explore the idea of a self-governing college for teachers and what this entails.

There is a perception held by various parties (The Wheatley Commission (1966), the Government of British Columbia (1987), the Royal Commission on Learning (1995)) that school teaching has reached a point in its evolution at which practitioners must take control of their governance and that this will contribute to teaching's becoming a fully mature profession. The teaching body requires a self-regulating body--one with its own voice, distinct from teachers' federations, government, and school boards. The Privilege of Professionalism report presented in October 1995 to the Minister of Education and Training, John Snobelen, states that, in recognizing the Ontario College of Teachers (OCT) as a self-regulating body, "the teaching profession has the knowledge and the expertise to set standards and to judge the conduct of its members on behalf of the public" (p. 9).

Statement of the Problem

Self-regulation is one of the accepted characteristics of a profession and the concept of self-governance is generally discussed in conjunction with the characteristics of a profession (Greenwood, 1966; Stinnett, 1966; Stabler, 1979). In Ontario, in the second half of the twentieth century, many occupations have sought and have achieved the status of self-regulation, among them, many of the traditional "women's" occupations such as nursing, social work, and a variety of health related careers such as physiotherapy and occupational therapy. Self-regulation is usually conducted by delegation of power to a College or Society. In this province, the idea of a self-regulating body for teachers was first introduced over one hundred years ago (Fleming, 1971). Why has it taken so long to emerge? What factors contributed to the slow growth and acceptance of the concept of a College of Teachers? From where has the main resistance arisen--

from government, the educational community, the public? What factors have now led to the establishment of an Ontario College of Teachers?

The answer to these questions lies in research. Therefore, two distinct purposes for this research have been developed and designed to achieve the following: firstly, this study describes the development of the Ontario College of Teachers by focussing on two functions of such a body, encouraging professional learning and ensuring accountability, and traces these two aspects of a self-regulating agency over time and in two existing models of teacher self-governance located in Scotland and British Columbia. Secondly, it examines teacher response to the concept of a professional self-regulating college as discussed in The Privilege of Professionalism report and, in particular, to the proposed model as outlined in Bill 31, An Act to establish the Ontario College of Teachers and to make related amendments to certain statutes.

Importance of the Study

The study's findings and their importance can be considered in terms of six complementary contributions. This thesis will provide insight into the development of professionalism among teachers and their growing awareness of the nature of a profession. Since this is the first study of the development of a College of Teachers in Ontario, it will provide background for understanding Bill 31.

Secondly, while there have been studies examining the development of professional learning and accountability in other professions, little has been documented on the question of a

self-governing body for school teachers. This research will contribute to the literature on professions and professionalism in general and to teachers' self-governing associations in particular.

Thirdly, the study will document the changes in the direction which teacher professionalism has experienced in this province over time, which will serve to educate both the profession and the public in this important topic. Both will come to understand better teacher professionalism, albeit from different viewpoints.

Fourthly, this study will enhance public understanding of teaching as a profession. The public at large recognizes self-regulation as a means of both being accountable to the public for the members' standards of service and probity, and providing discipline in the broad sense to its members.

Fifthly, since the research will seek teachers' responses to certain aspects of the proposed Ontario College of Teachers, its findings will be of significance to its Governing Council. The findings will help determine processes that will make the College more effective for the teaching profession and more accepted by the teachers.

Sixthly, since other emerging professions may be considering self-governing status in Ontario, the factors identified as having caused the slow growth of an Ontario College of Teachers may assist the professions' leadership and members to recognize the nature of the obstacles and suggest appropriate compromises and solutions.

Specific Research Objectives

Specifically, the research for this thesis was designed to investigate and report on the issues set out below:

1. The literature is replete with commentaries on concepts such as “profession,” “professional,” “professionalism,” “professionalization”. An examination of these related terms and a review of how self-governing associations develop will assist in determining how an occupation becomes recognized as a profession and how a profession becomes self-governing. Who confers and what determines the realization of that status?

2. An examination of the development of the College of Teachers, starting with the first recommendation in the 1860s to the Teaching Profession Act (1944) and subsequent reports and studies through to Bill 31, and documentation of the same, will explain how the concept of a College of Teachers unfolded. In the discussions about a college of teachers over the years, why did the Ontario Teachers' Federation (OTF) not undertake the role of a self-regulating professional body at its inception or in later years? What has been the role of the OTF and the five teachers' federations in the development of a College of Teachers? What are the teachers' federations' views regarding the proposed model for the OCT?

3. Comparisons of alternative models and adaptations of self-regulating professional bodies help to inform the policy debate. Therefore, by comparing the development and roles of two such bodies, the General Teaching Council for Scotland (GTC) and the British Columbia College of Teachers (BCCT), the features of the proposed Ontario College of Teachers may be

more fully considered. What are the roles and responsibilities of the GTC and the BCCT in their respective jurisdictions? How have these self-governing bodies developed? How do these colleges compare with the proposed Ontario model, what characteristics and governance features do all share, and what is different in the three colleges?

4. It is proposed in Bill 31 that the Ontario College of Teachers will be accountable for the teaching profession's standards of practice. This includes awarding credentials, professional learning, and disciplining of the profession. In order to understand the nature and extent of this responsibility, and referencing Bill 31, the terms "accountability," "professional learning," and "standards of practice" are explored. What are the standards of practice for educators? How will their attainment be measured? What is "professional learning," how will it be appraised and by whom? How will accountability to the public be carried out and demonstrated?

5. The views of educators and their perceptions of what the planned College of Teachers encompasses and how it will carry out its duties are essential to success. Therefore, examining how individual teachers perceive the concept of the College of Teachers and how they believe it will have a positive and/or a negative impact on them personally and professionally will explain how they regard the College. What are their concerns regarding its implementation? How have these beliefs been formed? Do their responses differ by gender, years of experience in teaching, teaching panel, or level of educational attainment? If so, in what way and to what extent? What seems to explain such differences?

Factors Altering Conditions of Professional Practice

McGuire (1993) has demonstrated that all the learned professions (except the ministry) have evolved in similar fashion: “random and haphazard entry of practitioners into the field, followed by their loose organization into voluntary guilds that soon began to impose training and entry requirements, eventually enforced by the accreditation of training programs and the licensure and/or certification of practitioners” (p. 5). This move from random entry to certification can be explained by three clusters of factors responsible for altering the conditions of professional practice. The first is an information explosion which results in greater specialization and expanded division of labour causing alterations in the innate characteristics of a profession. The second reason is the development of technologies which permit others to access specialized knowledge but still ensures that the professional practitioner has the greater and more important knowledge. The third encompasses general changes in the socioeconomic conditions and cultural setting of professional practice, which in turn, results in changes in the affiliations among professionals. This is reinforced by the “long socialization process [that] begins with entrance into training” (p. 5). Since evidence of this third cluster of factors is manifest in Ontario and may well have a strong connection with the present development of an Ontario College of Teachers, a brief contextual description is provided here.

General Socioeconomic Conditions

In the 1990s, society in Ontario has been characterized by a turbulence that is causing apprehension and anxiety (Anisef and Johnson, 1993; Royal Commission on Learning, Volume

1, 1994a). From the mid-1980s to mid-1990s, the province, in conjunction with the rest of Canada and other industrialized countries, experienced a severe and unexpectedly long recession. Ontario, the manufacturing heartland of Canada, felt the effect rather more severely than the rest of the country since the traditional manufacturing sector was very hard hit. Ontario lost its triple "A" credit rating, first in 1991 downgraded to double "A2" and then, in 1994, further downgraded to double "A3" (Moody's, 1997) and, as a result, had to pay higher interest for borrowed money. The Gross Domestic Product for Ontario in 1992 was \$282,803 million (Statistics Canada, 1997a). Recovering from the recession has been slow, particularly in the old manufacturing towns of Ontario. This economic downturn was a new and unwelcome condition for Ontario which had become used to the position of a premier, economically sound, affluent province. Recovery has started but still is somewhat elusive. The Gross Domestic Product for 1995 has improved to \$315,069 million (Statistics Canada, 1997a). In 1993, the unemployment rate was 11.2%; by 1996, it had dropped to 9.7% (Statistics Canada, 1997b). Still the economy is not yet producing enough jobs to absorb the experienced workers who were made redundant by the economic restructuring in the private sectors and the downsizing of the public sector which occurred in an effort to reduce public debt (Premier's Council on Health, Well-being and Social Justice, 1994). The replacement of human labour with technology results in slower employment growth by comparison to the growth of the workforce (Paquette, 1992). In recent years, the workplace, both private and public, has been fraught with problems of downsizing, right sizing, re-engineering, redeployment, restructuring, buyouts, early retirement, and displaced workers becoming reality (Royal Commission on Learning, 1994a, Council of Ministers of Education Canada, 1996b) .

Everywhere some form of “doing more with less” was being touted as the way of the future in Ontario (Harris, 1995). As a result, there is now a pervasive fear that Ontario’s children will not enjoy the same standard of living as their parents and that they will have to make many career and employment changes over their lifetime. They may be underemployed or even unemployed for long periods of time and normal career and promotion expectations are no longer tenable (Royal Commission on Learning, 1994a). These concerns are causing confusion and anxiety for the future. The province’s economic system is changing and the use and quality of technology is increasing exponentially (Premier’s Council on Economic Renewal, 1994). New jobs in the high technology, such as the robotics section at the Talbotville Ford Plant, are replacing the old manufacturing plants (Lipsey, 1996).

Youth are most adversely affected when there is a downturn in the economy (Advisory Committee on Children’s Services, 1990). The new young entrants to the labour market find that there are few job opportunities available to them, particularly those youth with limited education. For the uneducated, entry level jobs are only available in poorly paid service-type “McJobs” in the lower level of that sector (Royal Commission on Learning, 1994a). For those who lack high mathematical and business management skills, career opportunities are severely limited. Statistics Canada, in its 1988 study, found that “a substantial downward shift in the wage distribution of full-time jobs among 16 to 24 years olds in every industrial sector and occupational group in the economy, including the high paying areas [was occurring]. Among 24 to 34 years olds, there was a movement out of the highest paying towards the middle paying jobs in virtually every sector and many occupations as well” (p. 64). Radwanski (1987), in his report on dropouts, stated that “the career ladder has been truncated, and young people who start at the

bottom with inadequate education and few skills will at best stay at the bottom, in low-paid, dead-end jobs. More likely, they will increasingly become altogether unemployable, as those marginal jobs steadily dwindle in number” (p. 15). Issues such as these heighten parents’ awareness of the linkage between education and work and result in strident demands on the education system (Glaze, 1996).

Tensions and unease have also been aroused by the demographic changes of the last decade (Advisory Committee on Children’s Services, 1990). Ontario’s population is becoming more diverse, and while the benefits of diversity are not always appreciated, the attendant problems are readily recognized (Glaze, 1996). Groups in the population—women, the poor, those of different cultures, languages, races, and religions—who have not made their voices heard in the past, have become politically aware and more active in promoting change (Glaze, 1996). More than half of the immigrants coming to Canada choose to live in this province. In 1991, over 118,000 came, with 72% of this group staying in the Greater Toronto Area (GTA) (Royal Commission on Learning, 1994a). Of those coming to the GTA in 1989, approximately 20% were under the age of 19 (Advisory Committee on Children’s Services, 1990). About 50% of the new immigrants do not have English or French as their first language. By 1992, nearly 80% of Ontario’s immigrant population came from Asia, Africa, and Latin America (Royal Commission on Learning, 1994a).

Immigration is not the only demographic factor which has been producing fears for the future. Urbanization is equally worrisome (Royal Commission on Learning, 1994a). Canada has a large urban population and in no province is this more the case than in Ontario. Ontario’s

population of 10,084,885 (according to the 1991 census) ranks it as the largest Canadian province. Its urban areas total 81.7% of the population (approximately 8,239,000), with the rural areas at 18.3% or approximately 1,846,000 (Ontario Universities Application Centre, 1997). The 1991 census statistics listed the population of the Greater Toronto Area (GTA) at 4,236,000 persons. Since 1991, the GTA has increased by 9.3% to 4,629,000. By way of comparison, the GTA from 1986 to 1991 grew by 13.5%, which represented 500,000 people. On the national level, the GTA's population increase represents almost 25% of the national change and 59% of the provincial change (Profile Toronto, 1997). In the larger urban areas, providing affordable housing for low-income families is a growing problem. To the housing problem can be added the pressure on social agencies to provide services. In rural and northern areas, the issues are different. Overcoming isolation and meeting the needs of the diverse groups where there are fewer services and great distance present challenges (Advisory Committee on Children's Services, 1990).

Another social issue that is producing demands on schools and teachers is the change in the traditional nuclear family, with various modifications of family groupings. Two-working-parent families, single-parent families, blended or reconstituted families, and same-sex parent families can be found in many communities (Advisory Committee on Children's Services, 1990). Many children of these families require new school-based services. The children also need a closer partnership between teachers and family adults than was required a generation ago to ensure that the necessary supports are available for children.

In the 90s, more cultural groups are working to sustain their distinctive identity and they expect the school to assist in this objective. International Languages programs have flourished. Those adults who have been dislocated by the economic downturn are looking to education and training as ways to augment their skills. Familial and societal problems are transferred to the education system, which is expected to solve problems others have failed to resolve. There is much concern about violence, about values, and about the future, and often, teachers are expected to be the main agents who ease tensions, address fears, solve problems, and ensure successful achievement. This is evidenced by programs that have been mandated to schools: AIDS education; Values, Influences and Peers; family life education; media literacy; etc. In many of the above-cited situations, schools are expected to respond to the social needs of a diverse population.

On the other hand, from a political perspective, Ontarians are becoming more wary of public institutions and sceptical of their claims to expertise. They are demanding a greater say in how such institutions as schools operate. They insist that the institutions be more open, that more citizens be involved in making their policy and procedural decisions, and that those who run these institutions be more accountable to the general public. Some parents want a voice on School Councils concerning the school curricula. The Regulated Health Professions Act (1991) mandates that all self-governing bodies under it increase their public representation. The activities of parish churches or presbyteries are often directed by members of church and parish councils rather than priests and ministers.

There are criticisms that school systems are ineffective and do a barely adequate preparation of students. For example, when one group of students, inside or outside of Canada, surpasses the academic results of another group in Ontario, criticisms of school programs and teachers occur and lobbying, demanding answers that will guarantee success, begins. Schools and teachers are blamed for the poor results and confidence in education drops. Radwanski (1989) found that the confidence once held in a high school graduation diploma has declined. Among others, he cites two studies to support this assertion. The Canadian Federation of Independent Business (1985), in surveying its members, found that only 43% were satisfied with Ontario's education system. Each fall of 1984, 1985, and 1986, Humber College found that at least 40% of its first year students were reading at or below a Grade 10 level. Some youth avoid studying the "difficult subjects"— subjects such as mathematics and the hard sciences—since they are not required to study them beyond Grade 10. There are many groups who believe they have the answer to the education problems, who want to direct schools and teaching. They want basic communication skills stressed, social skills included, values taught, values not taught, physical education taught on daily basis, computer skills taught, and the list continues.

It was in this climate in 1995 that the discussions about a self-regulatory agency for teachers were held and the climate was stormy. For the first time in provincial history, a social democratic government achieved power in 1990. The New Democratic Party government had to try to deal simultaneously with the recession and growing unemployment, a recurring budgetary deficit, and a mounting public debt. A Social Contract was put in place for a three-year term; the salaries and benefits for public servants (including educators) were frozen or decreased through a system of unpaid holidays. Departments within government that provided direct service were

being cut back as were many of the transfer payments of the social welfare net. The civil service was being reduced and this trend was carrying over to other public sector areas. Privatization (e.g., crop insurance is now the responsibility of Agricorp), contracting out (e.g., cleaning staff at the Legislature), and off-loading of government services and activities were the order of the day.

A new provincial government was elected in June 1995. The Progressive Conservative Party came to power bringing with it The Common Sense Revolution plan that had won the party the election. The Common Sense Revolution, the policy document for the Progressive Conservative Party, promised tax cuts, further reduction of government, legislation to repeal existing laws, and legislation to enhance privatization and common ventures with the private and not-for-profit sectors. The decrease of transfer payments from both the federal and provincial governments to various agencies, public boards, and other recipients of public funds continued, and school systems and post secondary institutions were adversely affected.

Six months prior to the June election, the Royal Commission on Learning, the first royal commission on education in 25 years, released its report, For the Love of Learning, in January 1995. Its mandate, as outlined by Minister of Education Dave Cooke in 1993, when the Royal Commission was initiated, was to study and report on matters related to elementary and secondary school education, examining a “shared vision, ... program, ... accountability, ... and education governance” (Royal Commission on Learning, 1994b, p. x), with the responsibility to report any changes to laws, policies, and procedures that would improve education in Ontario. The Commissioners reported that there were four key elements to the success of Ontario’s education system: “a new kind of school-community alliance, ... early childhood education, ...

teachers, ... and information technology” (Royal Commission on Learning, 1994a, pp. 10-20).

One recommendation that the Commissioners proposed centred on teachers assuming responsibility for their own governance body. Glaze (1996) states that the commissioners

... recommended the formation of an Ontario College of Teachers as a professional self-governing body responsible for setting professional teaching standards in the province. It was our intention that this body would play a critical role in the provincial accountability framework. It was our view that the College would be responsible for ensuring that high professional standards of teaching and of teacher preparation programs meet the needs of Ontario schools. Its duties would also include setting and monitoring the framework governing the renewal of teacher certification. (p. 21)

The Minister acted on that recommendation quickly and the Ontario College of Teachers (OCT) was created in February 1995. An Ontario College of Teachers Implementation Committee was established “to advise the Minister on the establishment and mandate of an Ontario Teaching Council” (Clifford, 1995). The committee report was presented in October 1995 and will be discussed in detail in Chapter 5.

Given the changing situations in Ontario, it is understandable that the role of teachers may change. To cope with these changes, Marshall (1991) outlines what he believes are the roles that teachers need to assume. These include teacher as technologist, as employment counsellor and global economist, as leisure expert, as political analyst, as social worker, as teacher, and as scholar. This supports what the Royal Commission found, that there are a variety of roles and assignments that teachers undertake and that “it takes professional commitment and real expertise to handle [these]” (Royal Commission on Learning, 1994a, p. 16).

This preceding section has tried to show that, as Bob Dylan suggested some time ago, “the times they are a-changing,” socially, demographically, politically, and technologically. It is in these times and climates described above that teachers teach and students learn. The research that follows examines aspects of the College of Teachers, established in this environment of continuous change.

Research Design and Methodology

A detailed description of the design and methodology used to carry out the research for the thesis is given in Chapter 3. Since the intention was not only to recount the history of having a college of teachers in Ontario, but also, to account for its long delay in implementation; consider it within the framework of developing professionalism, professional learning, and accountability, and examine teachers’ views on a college, it was evident that a complex research design was necessary. The research would require a historical element and a comparative element. Both elements present few problems except for the search for appropriate documentation and journal articles.

A number of other criteria had to be considered in choosing some aspects of the research design. It was important to select and develop a design appropriate to a qualitative, descriptive study which could address the first research purpose and also include one appropriate for the quantitative, descriptive study which could address the second purpose.

It was essential that the design for the second purpose be accepted by all five teachers' federations (affiliates) in Ontario so that the sample of respondents would be representative of the teacher population of the province. The need for acceptance of, rather than opposition to the survey of teachers, was based on two premises: 1) the research topic was politically sensitive since it would be carried out at the time of the hearings on Bill 31 by the Standing Committee on Social Development at the Provincial Legislature; 2) it would ensure that no federation would squelch completion of the survey by advising its members, if chosen as part of the sample, not to complete the questionnaire. It was, however, equally important to balance these requirements against the need for control and consistency that ensures that research standards are met.

As a result, it was decided to plan for four phases of the research: 1) the review of literature related to professions and professionalism, self-regulation and models of self-regulatory bodies in general and those of teachers in particular; 2) the preparation of a descriptive history of the question of a college of teachers for Ontario; 3) the documentation of two fairly recently created colleges of teachers which present different possible models for consideration; and 4) the design and conduct of a survey to obtain the views of a sample of teacher respondents.

Limitations of the Study

It is beyond the scope of this thesis to examine whether teaching is a profession in the same sense as the traditional professions, but it does report on various views of teaching as a profession. Neither will the thesis either examine each committee of the OCT in detail nor predict how the OCT will evolve over the years, but it will comment on teachers' views on the

long term impact of the College. The thesis is further limited by the fact that since the OCT is a newly-created institution, very little has, as yet, been written about it. Although the survey of teachers may capture their immediate and current views, those views may well change as teachers' experiences of implementation of the college concept mount over the next few years.

Assumptions

Several assumptions underpin this research:

1. Professions are governed by self-regulatory agencies. However, the creation of an independent, self-governing body for teachers that sets standards of entry into the profession and disciplines its members does not in itself raise teaching to the status of a major profession. It would, nevertheless, grant to teachers one of the rights, (i.e., self-governance) enjoyed by other professions such as doctors, lawyers, architects, nurses, and social workers.
2. Teaching is regarded as one of many professions. These professions do not necessarily have identical characteristics, power, or status. To varying degrees, they all share the characteristics of the three traditionally recognized professions of medicine, law, and the ministry.
3. The teaching profession is composed of persons who make decisions about teaching and learning and who determine how these decisions will be realized. This teaching force has the knowledge and the skill to make such judgments.

4. Through the Education Act (Revised Statutes of Ontario, 1990) and attendant regulations, a teacher has been given authority to carry out the professional decisions that are made and has the responsibility to complete the tasks as mandated in legislation.

5. The teachers' federations have a great influence on teachers in the areas of economic issues and teacher welfare. Teachers are influenced by the position that the federations adopt on various matters.

6. Highly qualified teachers are required to ensure that children receive a high calibre education. Teachers must, therefore, be more than adequately and appropriately certified and educated.

Glossary of Terms

In this thesis, "educationese" and other jargon have generally been avoided. However, there are some terms which have been used in a specialized sense and these are noted below.

Accountability: specifies a relationship in which the state and its agencies are responsible to the public since they are established to protect and promote the public's interest; its essence is reliable communication and genuine regard for the public.

Accreditation: outlines a process for assessing and strengthening academic and educational quality through peer review. It informs the public that the accredited program operates at an acceptable level of educational quality and integrity; the program accepts responsibility for periodic examination to improve in quality.

Competence: demonstrates an understanding of and evidence of the pedagogical strategies attached to knowledge and/or subject matter.

Professional Learning: extends beyond certificated courses; includes activities that will transfer to the classroom (or appropriate setting) to benefit students and/or other learners.

Professional Learning Framework: sets clear priorities for professional learning; provides a setting in which teachers, individually and together, can establish their professional learning plans.

Self-regulatory / self-regulating: refers to the power to govern oneself.

Standards of Practice: refers to clear and specific statements that articulate the expected knowledge and skills demonstrated by an educator at determined points in time.

Acronyms

Using acronyms can ease the reading required in a thesis; they can also cause confusion without the identification of what each represents. Listed below are the acronyms that have been used:

AQ	Additional Qualifications
BCCT	British Columbia College of Teachers
BCTF	British Columbia Teachers' Federation
CNO	College of Nurses of Ontario
EIS	Educational Institute of Scotland
ENO	Education Network of Ontario
FWTAO	Federation of Women Teachers' Association of Ontario
GTA	Greater Toronto Area
GTC	General Teaching Council for Scotland
OCT	Ontario College of Teachers
OCUA	Ontario Council of University Affairs
OECTA	Ontario English Catholic Teachers' Association
OPSMTF	Ontario Public School Men Teachers' Federation
OPSTF	Ontario Public School Teachers' Federation
OSSTF	Ontario Secondary School Teachers' Federation
OTA	Ontario Teachers' Association
OTC	Ontario Teacher's Certificate
OTF	Ontario Teachers' Federation
OTU	Ontario Teachers' Union
REO	Réseau Éducatif de l'Ontario
SED	Scottish Education Department
SSTA	Secondary School Teachers' Association

Organization of the Thesis

This chapter has provided background for the thesis, defined the problem, and discussed the specific objectives of the study. In Chapter 2, the related literature on professions, professional learning, and accountability is reviewed. A section dealing with self-government and professional association completes the chapter. Chapter 3 describes, in detail, the decisions made regarding the design for the research and methodology as well the gathering of data.

The historical development of the college of teachers idea for Ontario from the time of Egerton Ryerson through to the Royal Commission on Learning Report released in 1995 is described in Chapter 4, and from the announcement of the creation of the Ontario College of Teachers to Bill 31 receiving Royal Assent is provided in Chapter 5. The next chapter (6) provides the background of the Scottish and British Columbian college of teachers models and examines the characteristics and governance features of these models, comparing them with those of the proposed Ontario. It reports interview data regarding opinions on the two established models and the proposed Ontario model. In Chapter 7, data gathered from the teachers' survey are presented, and the research findings are analysed with commentary. In the final chapter (8), a summary is given of the research findings, along with a discussion of their implications. Conclusions are drawn and recommendations are made for future research. The Epilogue summarizes some activities of the Ontario College of Teachers since this study was completed.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

Since this thesis concerns the development of the Ontario College of Teachers (a professional self-governing body for teaching) and the teachers' response to it, the related literature that provides the framework for the research involves a variety of sources. This chapter, admittedly, is rather long, but since the publications are reviewed under five distinct headings, the contributions under each title should become clear. Included are the following:

- I publications relating to the concepts “profession,” “professional,” “professionalism”, and “professionalization”;
- II publications describing how self-governing organizations have developed;
- III publications on accountability within a profession;
- IV publications discussing the role of professional learning in a profession; and
- V publications dealing with credentials and standards.

I Profession and its Meanings

Profession

Discussion of professions often provokes a quotation from George Bernard Shaw's The Doctor's Dilemma: "All professions are conspiracies against the laity" (Shaw, 1911, p. xxii). Illich (1977) supports the idea of conspiracy. He claims that wherever a human need exists, new professions dominate, monopolize, and legalize while concurrently devitalising and, in effect, disabling the individual. While the laity may believe that a conspiracy is in place and would agree with Illich (1977), most of today's professions make concerted efforts to counter this perception.

While recognizing that there are almost as many definitions of the term "profession" as there are studies of it, Cogan (1953) provides a useful definition:

a vocation whose practice is founded upon an understanding of the theoretical structure of some department of learning or science, and upon the abilities accompanying such understanding. This understanding and these abilities are applied to the vital practical affairs of man. The practices of the profession are modified by knowledge of a generalized nature and by the accumulated wisdom and experience of mankind, which serve to correct the errors of specialism. The profession, serving the vital needs of man, considers its first ethical imperative to be altruistic service to the client. (pp. 48-49)

Flexner's (1915) paper is frequently used to fix the time when criteria began to be advanced by which an occupation might be distinguished from a profession by reference to its members' education and status. Whitehead (1933) considered a profession "a vocation whose activities are subjected to theoretical analysis and are modified by theoretical conclusions derived from that

analysis” (p. 72), thereby shifting the emphasis to the basis on which the occupation’s work, knowledge, and skills rest. Starr (1982) (cited in McGuire 1993) develops the definition further: “A profession is an occupation that regulates itself through systematic, required training and collegial discipline; that has as a base, technological, specialized knowledge and that has a service rather than a profit, orientation enshrined in its code of ethics” (p. 6), thereby adding the privilege of self-regulation and the ethos of service. Blackington and Patterson (1968) consider that the use of the word “profession” clearly implies that the occupations’ members profess something, that the occupation’s particular social function is their principal reference point which directs their work and that, with their specialized knowledge and the means of verifying claims to that knowledge, the members are able to execute the practice for individuals and groups.

Greenwood (1966), Carr-Saunders and Wilson (1966), Moore (1970), Howsan, Corrigan, Denmark, and Nash (1976), and Starr (1982) *inter alia* have all added to the description of profession by defining sets of characteristics that distinguish the claimant group from other occupations which are not professions. These distill to the following characteristics:

- There is a body of theory on which the skill of the profession is based; it requires mastery. Because theoretical understanding is essential to professional skill, the education programs which prepare members of a profession must include both intellectual and practical experience.
- Professional authority is recognized by the client. The professional, using professional judgment within the theoretical competence, directs what is appropriate for the client, and the client has little choice but to submit or seek the professional judgment of another member of the profession.
- Society condones this authority and accords power and privileges to the profession because it accepts that, within the realm of professional practice, this expertise is intended to protect the public from malpractice. The power includes control over professional education through accreditation and development of standards based on existing theory. Privilege includes confidentiality and its rarity affords it the pinnacle in professionalization. It is generally accepted that only peers can judge a professional’s performance.

- A code of ethics regulates the client-professional relationship and colleague-colleague relationship. The code, although expressed in general terms, is intended to be sufficiently precise, methodical, binding, altruistic, and public-service oriented. Discipline is applied by the professional organization which has the powers to criticize or reproach its members, require reparation or reform, and, in extreme cases, to bar recalcitrants from further practice. As Greenwood (1996) points out, “since membership in good standing in the professional associations is a *sine qua non* of professional success, the prospect of formal disciplinary action operates as a potent force toward conformity” (p. 16).
- There develops a professional culture consisting of values, norms, and symbols, which is supported by formal professional association and which involves recognized standards of practice and competencies in professional work. Central to this culture is the belief that the career is a calling.

In his review of the literature on professions and professionalism, Kimball (1988) states that the undertaking to professionalize teaching implies a basic and generally omitted issue concerning the authority or legal power that professionals possess over their expertise. He cites Parsons (1964) as beginning the structural analysis of professions. Parsons’ definition of a profession recognizes two basic characteristics. First, by declaring itself a guild, a profession is an elective organization whose membership is specified by occupation, one that is self-regulated and self-disciplined. Second, a profession is based upon a “science”; the practice of the profession requires mastery of a body of theoretical knowledge involving several years of advanced study, usually at a university, which make it distinct from an apprenticeship, even though the practical preparation includes some supervised work period(s).

For Kimball (1988), the debate centres on the correlation between guild and science and consists of two components: legitimacy and authority. On one side, the body of theoretical knowledge legitimates the existence of the guild and for the professional association to appear legitimate, science must be seen as the basis for its members’ knowledge and practice. On the

other side, the guild realizes authority over a social function; professionals gain legal jurisdiction over the function both in its preparation and its performance. Kimball (1988) notes that the crucial factor “about the relationship between the two points in the prevailing structural analysis of the professions is this reciprocity that science serves to legitimate the authority of the guild, and the guild exercises authority over the social function to which the science pertains” (p. 4).

Identification of which occupations can be recognized as professions and which as trades has engendered much discussion. Carr-Saunders and Wilson (1966) citing Carr-Saunders’ earlier work (1928) refer to the rise of many new professions including teaching. They argue that although the traditional professions (mostly) are freelance, the newer professions are not any less professions because its practitioners have received salaries from the beginning.

Hoyle and John (1995) suggest there is a continuum that ranges from high status professions which fully meet all the alleged criteria of a profession to many other occupations and would-be-professions which meet some but not all the criteria. The latter are termed by Etzioni (1969), among others, as semi- quasi- or para-emergent professions. Teaching is often held by theorists (Etzioni, 1969) within this tradition to be a semi-profession. Pratte and Rury (1991) echo the tradition and voice the public’s concern in questioning whether teaching can be considered a real profession. At best, they note, it is often seen as a semi-profession. They cite Bennett and Hockenstad (1973) and Haug (1973) to support the view that teaching “is based more on common sense, intuition and accumulated experience rather than on a basis of formalized knowledge” (p. 8). Hoyle and John (1995) use the term profession for any occupation which, although it may not achieve total consensus, has traits “on which there is a high degree of

consensus including knowledge base, autonomy and responsibility ... [and they accept] that teaching, though not ranked in status terms with medicine and law is legitimately the object of this heuristic deployment of the term” (p. 16). Greenwood (1966) supports this practice citing the United States Census Bureau which, in describing the professional category of its occupational classification, includes teacher.

The Professional Preparation Project conducted by Stark, Lowther, Hagerty, and Orcyak in 1986, and reported by Curry and Wergin (1993), streamed professions into three groupings: the helping professions, which include nursing, social work, teaching, and the ministry; the entrepreneurial professions, which include journalism, business, and law, and the technical professions, which include architecture, engineering, and the military.

Fenstermacher (1990), when discussing professions, referred to three important differences between the ways in which the practice norms of teaching and the practice norms of most other professions are exercised: 1) Other professions mystify knowledge while good teaching requires the teacher to give students knowledge of the subject under study with clarity and also to impart the knowledge of how to learn the subject. 2) Other professionals maintain social distance, while good teaching lessens the distance and requires the teacher to acquire a broad and deep understanding of learners, to be concerned about a high congruence between what is taught and the life experiences of the learners, and to show willingness to engage the learners in the context of their own interests, intentions, and desires. 3) Other professions do not experience reciprocal effort, but for teaching, the point is student learning, and to achieve it, both the teacher and the student must expend effort. The members of many professions would dispute

Fenstermacher's bifurcation, particularly in number 3 above where, for example, a nurse or physician would claim that health promotion is a joint effort, or legal counsel would claim that the client must disclose fully all facts for a first-rate defence.

The Professional and Being Professional

One difficulty with the term "professional" is that it is used both as a noun (a professional, the professional) and an adjective (in a professional manner, being professional—as opposed to being unprofessional). The literature alludes to both.

One of the most common ways of beginning to understand a phenomenon is by describing the characteristics which are unique and set it apart. Moore (1970) follows this practice by identifying a professional as one who works in "an occupation whose incumbents create and explicitly utilize systematically accumulated general knowledge in the solution of problems posed by a clientele (either individuals or collectivities)" (p. 54). In this instance, the professional is recognized by virtue of the nature of work performed and the knowledge, skills, and attitudes necessary for the work. Tuohy and Wolfson (1976) argue that the decision-making function is the key to the professional role. The professional is the client's agent in arriving at a specific type of decision. The professional gains the privilege and responsibilities for decision-making by understanding the specialized knowledge required to make judgments and decisions and also understanding its importance in the client's life. These writers, therefore, view the professional's main role as giving "the client access to the information necessary to make

decisions by assuming the decision-making authority and the responsibility for promoting the client's interest" (p. 49).

Goodlad (1990) seems to define professional by stressing the qualities of a teacher who, as a teacher, can make--and presumably eventually help the student make--the decisions which result in successful learning. Thus he outlines the essentials for teaching to achieve professional status as a complete grasp of the function of education and schooling in a democratic community, an understanding of knowledge and the knowledge of how to explain human experience, a high-level proficiency in the explicit knowledge and skills needed to educate the inexperienced in these ways of knowing, and an awareness of the standards of excellence and equity. In short, for teaching to be recognized as a profession, teachers, singly and collectively, must demonstrate an awareness of and commitment to requirements associated with it.

Wentzell (1987) argues that realization of professional status for teachers will lead to improvements in the quality of educators. Would the reverse be equally true? In any case, he speaks of what it means to be a professional (citing Doyle, 1986) and it is recognized that not all of his comments refer to school teachers. Being a professional

- requires mastering a specialty and interpreting it;
- entails accepting discipline established and enforced by peers;
- denotes advancing group and individual interests through self-identification while including some occupations and remaining distant from non-professionals;
- means generally being self-employed, often in partnerships with others of like occupations;
- involves choosing both one's "suppliers and consumers" (p. 4);
- leads to practising in private (usually), although one works in public with fellow

professionals watching over one's shoulder, both in preparation and in practice. By working in public space, the result of a professional's work may be seen by all—customers, real and potential, are able to determine what the professional has achieved and in a salaried employment situation, the employer also can see as well as the client; and demands possessing technical and mechanistic knowledge and knowledge of moral and intellectual values.

Wentzell (1986) acknowledges that while many teachers would claim that they exhibit these traits in their working lives, he would argue that some of these traits are lacking in the educational arena. To ensure that teaching is established as a recognized profession, he believes that pre-service requirements and certification requirements, as well as the profession's right to discipline and regulate its members, must be investigated. Wentzell was speaking to the varied conditions on the different American states which are reported by The Carnegie Task Force on Teaching as a Profession (1986), A Nation Prepared: Teachers for the 21st Century, on which he based his conclusion. It includes a recommendation to “create a national board for professional teaching standards, organized with regional and state membership structure, to establish hiring standards for what teachers need to know and be able to do, and certify teachers who meet that standard” (p. 5). He believes that to establish teaching as a true profession in Canada, “above all teachers must be highly skilled and trained” (p. 6) and concludes that in establishing teaching as a profession would result in future educational strengthening.

Melvin (1993) defines a professional teacher as one able to judge “the most appropriate teaching conditions and strategies, to implement them and then to accept responsibility for the judgments made” (p. 13). His definition is based on the evaluation of a teacher's effective work rather than the pre-service program or status and power. Bohnen (1975) relies on professional schools connected with universities to support [teacher's] occupational assertion to professional status. The professional school has a stake in the professional claim since it imparts a tangible

and atypical body of knowledge and practices. Pre-practice and continuing professional education provided through the school socialize members into traditions, conventions, and mores of the profession. Bohnen argues, "The period of professional education is crucial to developing the sense of professional identity in new members. Quite apart from imparting new skills and knowledge, professional education inculcates values, attitudes and norms. This process of socialization is vital to maintaining the ideology of the profession and to discouraging challenges from within" (p. 27). Sykes (1989) agrees with Bohnen (1975) that only in the Professional School can the aspirant properly begin cultivating the knowledge, skills, and dispositions necessary for effective, ethical practice. Such a School is not only essential to developing and transmitting the unique professional knowledge base, it also serves as an effective screening agent to exclude unsuitable candidates rather than relying solely on tests or academic requirements.

Stark *et al* (1986) found that professional education programs (including those in education, nursing, and social work) yield many and varied professional preparation outcomes which they categorize in two ways. The first category describes the six professional competencies achieved: conceptual, technical, contextual, interpersonal communication, integrative (i.e., the ability to coalesce the preceding four in order to make informed decisions which Anderson [1974] terms as professional judgment), and adaptive. These produce a specialised proficient practitioner, thus forming the base level that a new entrant to the profession is expected to demonstrate. The second categorization is in terms of professional attitudes, which are conveyed by five dimensions demonstrating "career marketability, professional

identity, ethical standards, scholarly concern for improvement, and motivation for continued learning” (p.13).

Stark and colleagues define the expected outcome of any professional education program as the development of a proficient professional. One might complain that this is a tautology (and an example of circular teaching). That is, a professional program produces professionals and, therefore, a professional is the product of a professional program. Clearly, assessing professional progress of teacher education is not their intention. Too often the assumption seems to be made that the education of a professional involves only technique, that it is indeed simply a technical education. This assumption is rejected. The education of a professional teacher involves the connectedness of knowledge, skill, and attitudes. To achieve this desired outcome, programs include clinical and field experiences, and in teaching, this type of experience is essential. Stark concludes that “in many teacher education programs, at least half of the professional coursework may occur in classroom observation or practice teaching” (p. 46).

Covert (1982) observes that there are two traditional traits that occupations seek to exhibit when claiming professional status. The first is specialized knowledge which provides the basis for a proficient, competent level of practice in accordance with specified standards. A technically consistent performance level must be required so that the public views the professional’s work as beyond reproach. Since professional skill is based on specialized and abstract knowledge, only those involved in the comprehensive process of selection, education, and licensing are deemed adequate to assess professional performance. The second is an ethos of service. The professional must work with the client’s best interest at heart, since the client

cannot perform the service on his/her own behalf, and moreover, the service rendered must be seen as essential to the wellbeing of society.

Covert (1982) argues that teachers seeking professional status labour in vain. They strive to develop technical competence and a precise understanding of the available knowledge about teaching, but no specialized theoretical body of knowledge exists. He maintains that “teachers cannot claim professional status on one of the most basic professional propositions: the existence of a basic body of abstract and specialized knowledge and the means for verifying these claims to knowledge. This must be seen as a serious flaw in any aspiring professional group. As long as this remains part of the definition of a professional, teacher progress toward this goal will be severely limited” (p. 51). Teachers have a much stronger basis for supporting their claim to professional status in the second essential trait, the ideal of service. A strong commitment to service has always been part of its occupation’s attitude. Covert suggests that the ministry model would be suitable for teaching. He believes that the teacher’s “knowledge base, professional spirit and model of authority are much closer to those of the clergy than to those of either the lawyer or doctor” (pp. 53-54). The clergy is similarly more concerned with the long-term improvement of the client and practises imprecise skills emphasizing the human element over technical expertise.

Moreover, he argues, since teachers do not have the control over policy and employment that is essential to a profession, by definition they lack the prerequisites for autonomy. School boards, not teachers, make the educational policy and employment decisions. They are able, therefore, to reject professional judgment concerning matters even though their members have no

special educational expertise. They base their decisions on other factors--financial, political, organizational, and community pressures and preferences--all which override the teaching expertise, which is regarded as simply technical and enabling.

By contrast, Foster (1987) supports the proposition that teachers are professionals. He bases his position on the fact that their roles and competencies include identification, prescription, presentation, and evaluation. He cites Daniels (1973), who argues that in performing these functions, teachers are making professional judgments: "often unique and special decisions based on the peculiarities of their classes and individual students, decisions requiring a rational and intuitive ability to make creative extrapolations predicated on some collection of evidence" (p. 219). This ability to make specific decisions for students is extremely important, for teaching is a public trust, a service to clients who are compelled to attend under compulsory education laws. Thus, it is essential that teachers be professionals. Foster believes that according professional status only to those who "exhibit full professional autonomy and the other criteria is to risk placing professionals on the list of endangered, if not extinct, species for, as has been observed, it is open to question whether any vocation or calling can or does conform to these criteria" (Legatt, 1970, p. 156; Vollmer and Mills, 1966, p. 2). This observation seems especially pertinent today since an increasing number of professionals in both the traditional and the newer occupations are employed in large scale organizations as salaried employees providing services within the framework of bureaucratic hierarchies.

Professionalism

Bohnen (1975) presents two opposing theories of the value of professionalism. The first is favourable. It suggests that professionalism is positive in that it supports social development, stability, and humanitarianism rather than the excesses of both the laissez-faire market and “state collectivism” (p. 19). The second is negative. It views professionalism as having a detrimental impact: “monopolistic oligarchy whose control of technology will lead to some form of meritocracy” (p. 19). To support the first position, Bohnen cites Halmos (1970), who believes that “the true essence of professionalism is concern for others—either individual client or concern for the community” (p. 19), and Carr-Saunders and Wilson (1933), who claim to recognize that a profession can “serve as a bulwark against threats to democracy. Because the profession inherits, preserves and passes on intellectual and technical traditions, it is a force in favour of peaceful social evolution and against revolution” (p. 19). To support the second position, Bohnen cites Lees (1966), who argues that, in its insistence on professionalism, a profession restricts entry to an occupation through a statutory licence. The licence is required to practise the occupation and, in order to ensure conformity to its standards, the profession acquires control over professional education. Friedman (1962) concluded that control over the licensure process exercised in the name of professionalism and standards of practice results in the formation of a monopoly at the public’s expense. Daniels (1973) recognizes that the professional code of ethics serves the organization’s need for good public relations. Such a code helps “to justify the profession’s high status in society, and to reassure society that the profession is fit to police itself” (p. 20). However, monopoly of powers can be used to squelch new ideas and processes which the

profession's leaders may view as threats to the status quo. This possibility reinforces the narrow-mindedness and rigidity that inevitably emerges.

Bohnen's (1975) conclusions are critical: "professionalism operates by defining the needs of the consumer and the manner in which they are to be met. It imposes a self-contained institutional framework on the producer-consumer relationship. ... Almost every aspect of professional life and the professional institutional structure can be analysed according to the way in which it adds support to the profession's control ..." (p.22). For professionalism to occur, the public must be led to believe that the occupation is competent and to believe in the significance of the unique skills it provides.

In contrast, Winter (1989) offers an alternative theory of professionalism based on the concept of professional expertise which he compares to the theory of bureaucracy. The latter emphasizes general rules and represents an improvement in public affairs over the Byzantine machinations involved in administration by court "grace and favour". The rules and procedures provide for equality and equity in that they apply uniformly to all officials and clients in similar cases. Professionalism based on expert knowledge relies on judgment to treat individual cases in singular fashion according to the needs of the specific client in the actual context, dealing with a particular problem or service need. Winter warns that "professional expertise is not an 'exact science'" (p. 192). For Sykes (1989) also, "professionalism represents an effort to establish practice in the human services on a sound footing, to capitalize on and incorporate into practice a base of codified knowledge that progressively improves the work of the professional..." (p. 254)

and, according to Sykes, in partnership with the state, the profession provides protection for the public's safety and welfare.

For Clamp (1989), on the other hand, professionalism is less a manner of engaging in work as "a state of mind [based on a] firm foundation of attitude and behaviour" (p. 12). Van Zandt (1990) agrees. He believes that "professionalism is an internal mechanism [that complements the] external monitoring mechanisms such as credentialing" (p. 243). Since his is a most apt description of professionalism, it is quoted here. It encompasses

the way in which a person relies on a personal high standard of competence in providing professional services; the means by which a person promotes or maintains the image of profession; a person's willingness to pursue professional development opportunities that will continue to improve skills within the profession; the pursuit of quality and ideals within the profession; a person's sense of pride about the profession. These five components of professionalism are not mutually exclusive. One's professionalism would be diminished, however, if any of the components were not addressed in his or her professional development. (pp. 243-244)

Seymour (1963) argues that it is the attitudinal factors which can bring about behavioural changes within occupations, and since, for him, professionalism is a set of attitudes to one's work, it can be a great force for improvement. It is the ideals of professionalism, as promoted by professional associations, which are important in the change process. He also warns that professional occupational attitudes must become an integral part of the person's behaviour and genuinely felt and acted on. This is why the socialization process carried on throughout the long professional educational preparation is important. It is during this time that the aspirant begins to "think and believe like a ..." (teacher, for example).

Lam (1983) sought to discover the critical factors which influence teachers' attitudinal professionalism. The five dimensions he scrutinized were use of professional organization as a major referent, belief in public service, belief in self-regulation, sense of calling, and autonomy. He found that no single factor alone has any direct important impact on teacher professionalism, but four of them were influenced strongly by the immediate working environment as peer relationship measured by a number of in-school characteristics.

In contrast to those researchers who write of professionalism as a contrast to other occupational attitudes and measure professionalism in teachers in terms of status, Carr (1989) reviewed some writers who looked instead at what teacher professionalism demands and how it can progress. Grundy (1989), for example, argues that *practique* will prevent teaching from becoming mere technical expertise. She approaches the issue of professionalism "by interpreting teaching as an occupation informed by the disposition of *practique*: a disposition to examine the assumptions underlying conventional forms of professional conduct and to reflect critically on the extent to which the educational values ostensibly guiding the teachers' work are actually served by their professional practice" (p. 13). Carr also quotes from Sockett's (1989) discussion on teacher professionalism, wherein he came to terms with the "different accounts of professionalism" (p. 14) by accepting that they were the product of differing beliefs about "educational theory and practice" (p. 14). Sockett, however, agrees with Hoyle (1980), who asserted that, however else one defines professionalism, it focuses on the quality of practice. In his 1993 work, Sockett describes the quality of practice as that in which each action of the professional is judged by standards distinctive to the profession. This collection of standards is

constantly changing and is the body of understandings, values, wisdom, and learnings that is inherent in professionalism.

Discussing teacher professionalism, Ayers (1990) rather cynically quotes Sykes (1987), who argued that it is “a theme in search of specific policy initiatives and a social meaning appropriate to teaching circumstances” (p. 3). Ayers presents four reasons why, in the United States in recent years, there has been a focus on, and promotion of, professionalism. The focus is to elevate teacher status; attract more capable people to the profession, thus providing better rewards; justify and use the research on teaching undertaken recently; and “empower teachers to take control of the intellectual conduct of their work” (p. 3). Sykes (1989) also suggests that in the discussion on profession and professionalism, there has been a tendency “to identify one or more prominent aspects of professionalism, then develop parallels in education” (p. 267). He cites the attempts to create standards that will be generally recognized and controlled by the profession as one example of this tendency.

Ayers (1990) also quotes Sykes’ contention that three ethical issues impinge upon the move to emphasize teacher professionalism. The first, “caring and compassion as the heart of teaching” (p. 3), if stressed, may well lead to a reduction or lessening in the emphasis upon “quality” in teaching. Quality and equity may be diminished while the focus on professionalism may lead to a distancing of teaching itself from the community that supports it, “in favour of an obtrusive elitism” (p. 3). The third issue is that of equity versus a professional excellence which could result in “standard-setting [that] will be used to discriminate against and drive-out minority teachers and teacher-candidates” (p. 3). However, Ayers (1987) does concede that “if a concept

of professionalism is built firmly on a base of respect for individuals and for community, for critique and compassionate regard, for connection and interaction, perhaps teaching may become the model of professionalism for our whole society” (p. 4). In these concerns of ethics and professionalism, it must be recognized that they are echoes of recurring and recent social/racial problems of the United States which are not encountered to the same degree in Ontario.

Burbules and Densmore (1991), who do not support the move toward a classic model of a profession, disagree. They see the “call for professionalizing teachers .. [as] basically defensive and reactive to social and political circumstances over which teachers have very little control” (p. 48) and argue that “professionalism for teachers is an ideology that encompasses the conflicting expectation which our society demands of teachers” (p. 46). Citing Larson (1977), they rephrase the account of the steps taken by an occupation when it intends to become a profession. These steps involve

aggressive social and political action to (a) take control of occupational prerogatives, (b) obtain the protection of law to insure restricted access and professional privileges, and © engender conflict both internally and externally to differentiate ‘true’ professionals from others. Public recognition follows this process rather than preceding it. (p. 51)

This passage suggests that the move to professionalism is not free of ideological or political interpretation or contamination or that, for that matter, interference from outside sources. The development of professional identity and the move of many workers in occupations whose specialized work is based on complex knowledge and skills to come together and to identify themselves as professionals is a pervasive phenomenon in our society. Such moves may be interpreted conservatively as merely another occupation, treading the well-worn path of the traditional and new professions. They may also be interpreted by the more radical activist as one

group's growing in status, privilege, and power at the expense of another. The question both groups must address is the nature of power. Furthermore, it may be as Watson (1997) has noted

about the nature of power. In the U. S., a common slogan of activism has been their wish to 'empower' formerly inarticulate groups. Therefore power is something accorded or confined. Does the empowerment of teachers by recognizing their professionalism and thus confirming their status as a profession (with the concomitant privilege and responsibilities) thereby inevitably create a gulf between them and the community (which, it must be conceded, does not 'support' them)?

Earlier, Sykes (1987) raised a similar issue.

In contrast, Burbules and Densmore (1991) believe that "professional status, when it is based on reputation, group membership, and credentials, does not itself support a legitimate authority. The authority that professional teachers should have is the authority any teacher should have: that which is granted by a broad consensus that recognizes their special knowledge and experience and is sustained by an ongoing relation of communication, concern and mutual respect" (p. 153).

Professionalization

Gross (1958) notes that as an occupation nears professional status, there ensue significant structural changes and changes in the association of the practitioners to society at large and he advises that one way to discuss such changes could be "by reference to the criteria of professionalization" (p. 77). Wilensky (1964) quite clearly sees the changes as a progression and delineates the five steps that occupations seem to undertake in the process of professionalization: (1) the activity becomes full-time work; (2) a training school is established eventually, if not immediately, at a university so that the preparation for work can be of an acceptable level and

guaranteed, and where this knowledge required for the work becomes privileged and rigorous and its practice complex; (3) a professional association is formed by those who have been trained to discuss their common work interests, problems, and new developments; (4) political agitation to win legal support and public recognition occurs; and (5) a formal code of ethics is formulated, adopted, and embodied as the conventions of the profession. The two barriers to professionalization that he recognizes are “organizational threats to autonomy and the service ideal” (p. 146) and “threats to exclusive jurisdiction” (p. 148). The former is encountered where (as is increasingly the case) large numbers of the profession’s members are employed in bureaucratic organizations and as salaried staff. In such a work environment, there may be dilemmas facing the professional where ethics conflicts with bureaucratic rules and procedures and where management policies may take priority. The latter problem is encountered where there is a growth of knowledge thus increasing the number of academic disciplines and developing specialized work and new groups of workers. There are challenges for control of some of the work activities which both the traditional and emerging professions hold in common.

Vollmer and Mills (1966) cite Foote (1953), who also saw professionalization and the growth towards a profession as a progression. First, there is the emergence and growth of a specialized technique supported by a body of knowledge into which practitioners are drawn from some more traditional areas of work. There, these ‘new’ professionals develop refined skills and career paths supported by an association of colleagues and finally there is established recognition of professional status and community recognition that the new profession is accepted. In their discussion of the professionalization of labour, Vollmer and Mills (1966) stress the emergence of the specialized techniques, career orientations, and community recognition of status.

Hoyle and John (1995) also view this process as a dynamic one. Professionalization is generally used to explain the process by which a semi-profession moves to satisfy the characteristics of a full profession. It “contains two strands: ... one element is the process of meeting the institutional, and hence status aspects, of a profession: strengthening the boundary, increasing credential requirements, establishing a self-governing body, etc. The other element is improving the quality of the service provided, through improving the skills and knowledge of practitioners” (p. 16). Earlier, Hoyle (1980) (cited by Sockett, 1993) distinguishes between professionalism, “focussing on the quality of practice” (p. 115) and professionalization “where the status of the occupation is at stake” (p. 115). The teacher’s professionalism is evident in practice.

Recent discussions on the professionalization of teachers have occurred. Zlotnik (1987) sees that with professionalization teachers will collectively have a form of “self-direction” (p. 17). It will:

- establish qualifications for entry to continued membership in the profession (certification);
- exercise substantial control over the professional education of teachers;
- determine objective criteria and agreed standards regarding minimum acceptable levels of performance in particular types of teaching positions;
- defend the rights of professionally certified teachers to exercise professional judgment free from arbitrary orders or coercive action;
- provide organizational and administrative support to teachers in improving teaching—helping good teachers to become better, helping poorer teachers to meet satisfactory standards, encouraging persistently poor performer to leave teaching.

Zlotnik believes that professionalization is the force to use to compete with managerialism that may dominate education.

Sykes (1991) provides three arguments for the professionalization of the teaching profession: the first is founded on the needs and interests of children and youth--they require teachers who have professional authority; second is that the antiprofessional position is dysfunctional--that eliminating the undesirable attributes and complications of classic professionalism will not erase the equity or quality dilemmas which are endemic in the practice of teaching in the educational system; the third is based on the *sine qua non* contention--professionalizing reforms in themselves are not sufficient to achieve a thorough reform of education, but they are a requisite facet of it. Sykes recognizes the dilemmas of the employed professional, but he also cites Gutman (1987) who noted that if professionals acquire too much autonomy, they may give way to the importance of the office rather than to the importance of the client. However, he believes that the converse is true: if the professionals have too little authority, duties cannot be performed either to their satisfaction or that of their employers.

Sykes concludes that teaching cannot emulate other professions. There is much about teaching that is unique. It is a function that is essential and fundamental and not peripheral.

Summary

This brief review of the vast literature on the professions illustrates a diversity of views that the term (and its derivatives) encompasses and suggests what occupations can justify being called professions. However many characteristics are listed and whether they are considered singly or in combination, generally they include altruism, autonomy, a code of ethics, standards of practice, specialized knowledge acquired through prolonged training, and performance of an

essential function for society. One can argue passionately on both sides whether or not teaching is a profession. In 1944, with the proclamation of The Teaching Profession Act, however, the Government of Ontario declared that, in this province, it is recognized as a profession.

The second section discussed the professional aspect of an occupation and examined characteristics that are required before an individual may be called a professional. Professional schools play an extensive role in the development of a professional both in “professional identity” (Bohnen, 1975, p. 27) and competence. Without well-defined outcomes based on a theoretical framework which can be diverse and on-site internship or experiential learning, the would-be teacher will not become a professional but rather could become a technician.

Professionalism has been described as a mindset, the idea that professionalism is determined very much by attitude and is not limited to those who belong to a formal organized profession. As Humes (1986) views it, professionalism can become a controlling mechanism and it can also lead to an organization responsible for self-regulation, registration, and discipline.

Professionalization as a process includes the idea of self-governance and a body that has authority of legal control that, in this case, teachers possess. Wilensky’s (1964) five steps can be used as a gauge to determine how far along teachers are in the process of professionalization.

Knowledge of this literature on the nature of professions, professionalism, and professionalization enjoined the documentary review of Ontario’s history of a College of

Teachers and the present OCT proposal. It provided perspective to the interviews as well as relevance to the questionnaire terms.

II Self-Governance and Organizations

Self-governance

Aucoin (1978) explains that a self-governing profession is “an example of a general characteristic of the distribution of authority; delegation of authority allows for some measure of independence from government” (p. 4). Delegated is the power to establish and administer regulations and procedures that would have status of law. He claims that there are two main reasons for the state to surrender some of its authority to an organization. The first he describes “as the desire to structure state intervention in a sphere of public affairs in a manner that restricts the capacity of government to exercise discretion in rule-making and adjudication” (p. 5). This is not a very satisfactory explanation. It may describe what the delegation of authority involves but it does not thoroughly explain why the state finds the surrender of its power desirable or, minimally, acceptable. This second reason is more plausible: administratively self-governance of a profession is useful. The state does not want to accept the costs of directly exercising control over professionals and their work. Neither the economical/financial nor political costs would equal the benefits of the state’s direct power. Intervention to regulate their activities and perhaps style their interests of powerful articulate groups in the society is not without political risk in a democracy. The self-governing profession can organize effective political counter challenges. Moreover, the effective intervention in the work and governance of groups whose

practice is based on complex and highly specialized knowledge and technique cannot easily be carried out through the standard civil service cadres. Where government enacts legislation and creates policy which impinges upon the work and interests of professional groups, it usually (wisely) coopts some of the profession's leading members to act on advisory councils and committees.

In Canada, the power of self-government varies by province and profession. It can extend from the right to use an occupational title to the right to exercise specific powers. State recognition of a profession by delegating authority is a much-desired condition not accorded to all claimants. Aucoin suggests that self-governing means much more than a professional belonging to or having membership in an organization, rather, it means being established as a profession. The key to self-governing status is that public policy be served by giving the profession a significant measure of autonomy and independence from government. The assumption is that self-government represents the most desirable method of regulating professional practice.

Aucoin continues by describing the structures of self-government. The regulation that establishes the self-governing profession is specific in outlining its governing body and the representation that will be accorded to members of the profession and of the public. Its functions and responsibilities are defined and the organization must show that it is capable of carrying out its functions and be held accountable to the state. He points out that, in Ontario, relations between a self-governing profession and the state are subject to two conventions: the Lieutenant Governor in Council is "responsible for the exercise of authority" (p. 52), and the executive of

the self-governing profession is “responsible to the Legislature for its administrative actions *vis-à-vis* the self-governing profession” (p. 54).

In order that the arrangements for self-government reflect the essential character of the agency relationship, it is necessary that the membership of an organized profession be afforded a role in the processes of self-government. The membership has the right to select those who represent them on the governing bodies of their profession and should possess a capacity to approve, initiate or otherwise participate in the determination of the policies adopted by governing bodies. (p. 57)

The original intent of governments in granting self-regulating powers to selected occupational groups was to protect the public from unqualified and unethical practitioners by providing educational supervision and establishing malpractice guidelines. Riera and his colleagues (1976) would extend the term “professions” beyond this classic sense to include occupational groups which enjoy some of the same self-regulating power as the recognized professions and who desire to attain full status.

Stabler (1979) provides his understanding of what self-governing means for a profession. It gives permission to regulate admission by establishing the necessary qualifications for education and proficiency, to define and maintain a mandatory code of ethics and conduct which is binding on all members, and to take disciplinary action against members who fail in their work to meet its established standard in ethics and competence. The justification he cites for self-licensing and regulation is that enunciated by Alfred North Whitehead, who in 1942, argued that the general community is not qualified to determine the entrance and continuance in a profession or to discipline or to expel a recalcitrant member. The implication is that only a group of like professionals can define, establish, and maintain competency standards and ethical behaviours

and, therefore, only some representative group drawn from their collective is competent to judge whether these standards have been achieved and are being maintained.

The danger, according to Stabler (1979), is that a self-governing profession or occupation will use its own statutory control to enhance its position and the self interests of its current members by regulating the number of members to decrease competition, increase remuneration, and safeguard certain conventions. He notes that there is a trend to modify self-government's control and independence by including the representation of lay members and government personnel on governing bodies and by having their voice used to influence decisions on admission to, and the curriculum of, the qualifying programs which are given by the teaching institutions. However, he emphasizes that it is the licensing body (eg., Ontario College of Physicians and Surgeons) and not the professional association (eg., Ontario Medical Association) that holds the power to license and discipline the members of the medical profession.

Tuohy and Wolfson (1976) reviewed a number of government reports (Ontario 1970, Saskatchewan 1973, British Columbia 1974) written since the late 1960s that highlighted some of the weaknesses of various professions' self-government. It is noted that some recent changes have already modified them. The review noted:

the need of institutional mechanisms for lay input into the decision-making process, as well as state review of the outcomes of that process; they have urged the rationalization and strengthening of the mechanisms for review of the decisions of professional bodies. In 1968, the Commission of Inquiry into Civil Rights in Ontario, for example pointed to the lack of standardization of the mechanisms for state review of the decisions of professional bodies, which ranged from *ex officio* representation of a Cabinet minister on professional governing councils, through provision for Cabinet veto or prior approval of professional regulations, to the detailed spelling out of certain rules (e.g., those governing

admission procedures) in a statute, rather than in regulations passed by the professional body itself. (pp. 79-80)

For some time, legislation in Ontario has required lay representation on the governing councils, has ensured that certain committees of professional bodies systematize and standardize the mechanisms, and has instituted a means of review of the decisions such bodies make. For example, the Health Disciplines Act (S.O. 1974) recognizes “the importance of broadening the perspective of professional decision-making by including lay representation on professional bodies ... [and] several professional bodies have moved voluntarily to incorporated lay representation within their structures” (Tuohy and Wolfson, 1976, p. 80). But these authors judge the current situation as a mixed good as the following excerpts from their study show:

Traditionally, Canadian governments have shown themselves willing to grant fairly extensive property rights to professionals, and loath to interfere with those rights once established. True, they have treated professional property rights as conditional on the fulfilment of social obligations, but they have allowed these obligations to be specified largely by professional groups themselves. And these obligations have been specified as injunctions on individual professionals to maintain standards to technical competence and ethical behaviour. The social responsibility of the group as a whole has been interpreted as the responsibility to enforce standards on individual practitioners. (p. 81)

Tuohy and Wolfson express concern about the dangers that the profession could inflict on a public ultimately resulting in abuses. Unnecessary functions could be given to the profession resulting in monopoly prices charged for services. The profession could restrict supply thereby maintaining prices at an artificially high level. It could also create a demand for the services provided thereby increasing the volume of service provided. They conclude that Canadian public policy regarding professions has not adequately provided protection against these dangers and that Canadian governments have not provided a way to review professional regulations on a regular basis to determine “abuses of the regulatory power in maintaining an artificially high

level of return” (p. 81). Other than the Minister, Ontario’s legislation has no on-going mechanism for assessing professional legislation. The state must recognize the dangers outlined above and realize that:

there must be mechanisms for full-time, continuous review of professional decision-making bodies, for the generation of information regarding the social, economic and political impact of professional decisions, and for the overturning of professional decisions and regulations where the state judges them not to be in the public interest. The appointment of lay representatives to professional decision-making bodies is not sufficient to meet these criteria, nor is the legislation that allows the Minister to review and revoke (if necessary) legislation passed by professional bodies. (p. 86)

In the aspect of self-governance, organizations need to be cognizant of the dangers as outlined by Tuohy and Wolfson. A higher authority is necessary to monitor and, if necessary, respond to actions taken by self-governing bodies.

Professional Associations

The medieval guilds which are the ancestral basis for professions are described by Pratte and Rury (1991) as “corporate entities that defined standards of performance as a condition of membership, as well as pay scales (or rates), working conditions and the like. In many instances, they also functioned as quasi-civil authorities monitoring and governing the behaviour of their members. In this regard, a conscience of craft was engendered and enforced” (p. 72). Early professional associations, described by Moore (1970) behaved as a vanguard “for establishing performance criteria concerning specific services” (p. 58). Self-selected professional practitioners who were their members tried to “standardize performance by example” (p. 58), but

performance by example is not necessarily the best way to assure compliance and eventually these associations turned to licensing statutes to mandate the assurance of compliance.

Many writers stress the professional association as the key element in the development of a profession. Professional associations have a long history. In some instances, a profession may have emerged from within a current profession (e.g., dentistry from medicine), but not developed its professional association for some time. Carr-Saunders and Wilson (1966) noted that “the civil and canon lawyers, the teachers and civil servants were in a like situation, ... [but] the two latter professions ... possess[ed] no specialized technique and therefore lack[ed] that incentive to association which has proved in the case of other professions to be of such great importance” (p. 154). They conclude: “A profession can only be said to exist when there are bonds between practitioners, and these bonds can take but one shape--that of formal association” (p. 154). Cogan (1953) cites Bryson (1947), who earlier maintained “that explicit organization is inherent in any exact definition of profession” (p. 42).

Goode (1957) notes that professional and occupational groups that want to become professions begin by establishing their own community. It is this community which, when recognized for self-government, regulates the selection of professional recruits and decides upon their necessary training within the educational program to initiate the “socialization training process” (p. 194). Hughes (1959) continues the community theme, realizing that closely associated with the concept of profession is the idea of a community of practitioners with specialized knowledge that sets them apart from others they serve. Humes (1986), outlining one aspect of professionalism, states that “both the expert knowledge which the professionals possess

and their sense of obligation to their clients make it desirable that they should be organised on a self-regulating basis and be responsible for their own registration and disciplinary procedures” (p. 21). He goes on to argue that professionalism has become a controlling mechanism operating as much against members themselves as against those lacking the requisite qualifications and training.

Moore (1970) comments on another aspect of the professional community, “as the labor allocator through which a would-be professional must pass” (p. 58). He notes that such barriers help standardize the service and limit the personnel who work in the profession, and he cites the Council of State Governments (1952) which reported that governments regard licensing as a regulatory device. Private groups may see licensing as a means of using the government to help “standardize admission requirements and minimize competition while at the same time protecting the public from injury to its health and welfare.” (Moore, 1970, p. 59) Legislation that includes professional codes insures that violation of them is often sufficient to suspend a licence.

By regulating admission to the profession, the profession preserves standards but, Moore suggests it can also “enhance occupational prestige, control the number of authenticated practitioners in order to reduce competition and increase income, and, not uncommonly, to protect a particular orthodoxy against reasonable and even superior alternatives” (p. 111). On the other hand, having no restriction of admission to professional work equally can cause harm to an unwary public. This form of self-discipline, the setting of admission standards, could permit abuses: for example, qualified persons could be prohibited from entry to the profession by reason of race, ethnicity, or sex. In addition, the desire for expansion might lead to a permissive

interpretation of criteria for entry or a limited interpretation which stresses irrelevant qualification for entry.

Nevertheless, in spite of the admitted drawbacks, Moore (1970) contends that, with a self-regulating community,

peers are the most competent judges of technical qualifications and performance, and ... the existence of a professional association virtually guarantees that some portion of the adherents to or practitioners of a specialty will be attentive to the good reputation of the collectivity. If a conspicuous miscreant is affiliated with the proper and relevant association, his conduct may be brought under review by his colleagues; the reputation of the collectivity may require the imposition of sanctions, ranging from reprimand to dismissal. (p. 116)

Professional codes of conduct are private law systems that differ from administrative regulations in that they emphasize appropriate relations with clients and others outside the organization; in addition, they are understood to be “not self-enforcing” (p. 116). However, Moore (1970) is less sanguine about professional self-regulation on the questions of who judges competence and performance and who decides upon jurisdiction:

The age-and-prestige structure of long-established professions puts power where it may be less meritorious: among those who have been successful, and recognized, according to criteria that may or may not be currently relevant in view of the latest information and techniques. It may be a matter of common sensibility to human problems that has built ‘grandfather clauses’ into all new, more stringent requirements of competence for admission to professional status. It is always easier to select, govern and control admission to an occupation than it is to keep current competence under surveillance. (p. 129)

In view of the legislation (Regulated Health Professions Act) implemented in Ontario in 1997 for the health professions, which requires its associations to ensure members’ continuing competence, the responsibility for monitoring standards will become a considerable burden for all involved.

Professional associations came into being because they had a common interest in their subject and because the better skilled members of the occupations wished to be distinguishable from the common lot. They also wanted membership to be confined to those who met minimum qualifications. Thus, the professional association was exclusive only in the sense that it excluded the unqualified. Carr-Saunders and Wilson (1966) also explain the emergence of the professional association as the product of a “desire to see a proper standard of conduct set up and maintained” (p. 170). The establishment of the professional association accomplished this goal by defining and enforcing rules of appropriate professional conduct. Moore (1970) also suggests that the evolution of the professional and disciplinary associations followed similar trajectories. Like-minded adherents sought out others with similar interests or practice and, in the beginning, the technical qualifications were not of great importance. As time went on, standards and the technical gauge become more important. Recognition that the association was the “authenticating agency” (p. 115) for its members came to be considered essential.

Professional organizations can be both formal and informal and, as Snizek (1972) notes, they reinforce the values, beliefs, and identity of the profession. By attending professional meetings and by reading professional journals, practitioners develop what Gross (1958) termed “colleague consciousness” (p. 77). It is believed that once the practitioners acquire such consciousness, they are influenced by the standards of their profession. It is difficult to assess the claim that the educational level of professions has been raised by virtue of the role played by professional organizations. Maintenance of high technical education standards, while of interest to the professional organizations, is not their sole concern. They also demand a high standard of general education before specialization.

Bohnen (1975) believes that “the psychological benefits conferred by professionalism should not be underestimated. Professional organizations, and the ideology of the profession, provided members with an identity, a comforting sense of belonging to a group that has well-defined rules, norms, and values, and wide respect and prestige” (p.24). However, she warns that there are disadvantages for clients and society. With professional associations’ near control in terms of discipline, it may be difficult for the client to obtain recompense for professional wrongdoing. Bohnen argues that “it is unacceptable that consumers should have no effective input into decisions made by professional organizations or that they should find it impossible to change patterns of practice because of their assumed lack of expertise” (p. 36). But overall, she concludes that professional organizations’ claim that they serve the public interest is proven. For the most part, they are unselfish and their members put the interests of their clients first. However, although this may be conceded for the collective and accords with professional ideology, it does not necessarily accord with the behaviour of every particular practitioner and she warns that society must assume the burden of protecting itself.

In countries with a British heritage, the professional gatherings for teachers emerged early on and developed in associations or federations of teachers (Fleming, 1971). These have now developed to the degree that Burgess (1991) urges teachers to take the initiative and establish a Council to set standards and a code of practice for all practitioners. Such a Council should be composed of teachers and academics who would formulate “locally and then nationally, the requirements of membership, the means of maintaining discipline, quality and values and hence a code of conduct and practice” (p. 20).

To discuss professional associations, particularly for teachers, without considering the issue of unionism and unions as related to teaching is not possible. Sykes (1989) holds that

teaching today is heavily unionized. ... The organizations that represent teachers contain a large cadre of individuals committed to collective bargaining, to grievance and other due process procedures, to strikes and job actions, to political action at state and national levels, and to adversarialism in response to administrators and school boards. (p. 264)

But he objects that the

union posture is ill-fitted to the pursuit of professionalism. The operating style, underlying assumptions, strategies employed and the issues agenda do not square. Professionals, for example seek control over standards of work as essential to their autonomy. Unions seek highly specified rules and contract requirements that delimit the responsibility of workers. Unions owe protection to their members. This legally binding obligation conflicts with injunctions to rid teaching of incompetents.

From a union perspective, then, incompetence is management's responsibility. Principals serving as agents of the school board evaluate teachers. From a professional perspective, however, incompetence is the professions' responsibility. Peer evaluation, however imperfectly it works in practice, is the professional norm. (p. 264)

Sykes questions whether an occupation that is heavily unionized can professionalize and expresses doubts. He points out that there are no precedents which can provide evolutionary guides. There is no blueprint for blending the two quite contrary organizations. He comments "if the 'professional union' is to be more than a contradiction in terms, the grounds for rapprochement have yet to emerge" (p. 264). The difficulties in moving to this status of a self-regulating profession should not be minimized. As Sykes (1989) reminds his readers

a triple whammy plagues teaching: feminized occupation teaching the young, stereotypical image of 'women's work', ubiquity—teaching is omnipresent in our culture. Does teaching really require arcane, special knowledge? The public sees so much of teaching that to sustain claims for a special knowledge base is much more difficult. To an extent, every profession blends ordinary knowledge with special knowledge, but in teaching the balance appears tipped toward the commonplace. (p. 265)

Smith (1995) is more optimistic about reconciling the apparently conflicting ethos of professional teachers' associations and teachers' unions. He contends that "teachers want their unions collectively, and with conviction, to represent the corporate ideals, the aspirations, the conscience and the voice of their professions" (p. 55). He believes that the time has come to establish a General Teaching Council (GTC) in England and for the government to relinquish powers which, in his view, it should never have acquired. In that event, the teaching profession would be "willing to assume collectively new public responsibilities and accountabilities. It would do much to raise the public status of teachers and restore their worrying fragile self-esteem" (p. 57). But Smith recognizes that the "support of some unions for a GTC is ambivalent at best" (p. 57). There is precedence for such a Council since there are two such major councils, one for medicine and one for law. They "have the power to withdraw the practising licences of doctors or lawyers found guilty of professional misconduct. For teachers that power ultimately lies in the hands of the Secretary of State. The medical and legal professional bodies [also] have another power: to discipline those found guilty of incompetence or negligence" (p. 57). Negligence which involves the physical safety of children can be a criminal offence (depending on its nature) as well as a civil one under Tort law (which provides for liability and hence damages). But Smith foresees some problems in having to define precisely what constitutes academic "negligence, incompetence or unacceptably poor performance in a qualified teacher" (p. 58). The problems of definitions are exacerbated by those identifying and showing "conclusive evidence" (p. 58). Smith concludes, from the experience of Britain:

The result is that the teaching profession is not seen to police itself, not seen to deal with those who fail to match up to its demands. The problem is compounded by the fact that the teachers' associations which stress the importance of a quality teaching force, which justifiably point to the hard work and commitment of the vast majority of practitioners, are the very same organizations which, as trade unions, represent and defend the members of a small, incompetent minority in

their ranks. (p. 59) [But] ... if the teaching profession itself, via the agency of GTC were seen to play a leading active role in guaranteeing high standards of practitioner performance, the status of the profession, and perhaps its own sense of self-worth would rise immeasurably (p. 58).

Examining the past quarter century of union activities in the United States, Sykes (1987) came to much the same discouraged assessment. He concluded that

unions have adopted an industrial model of labour relations whose assumptions are very different from the social contract implied by the professionalism. Within the industrial model, the workers' organization emphasizes rights and protection, not responsibilities. The first, legally binding obligation of the worker's organization is to protect the worker, rather than to develop standards of work or norms of practice. Management takes responsibility for enforcing work standards through close supervision. As part of the industrial bargain, the union regards issues of teacher incompetence as management's problem. The union's responsibility is to use every stratagem of the law in defending teachers in grievance and termination proceedings. Within the industrial model, the labour-management relation is adversarial. One side's win is the other's loss, breeding a zero-sum politics of confrontation and resentment. (p. 20)

However, Casey (1981) is less pessimistic. He believes that "most teachers' organizations, whether called unions or association, have a dual interest, ... i.e., the concern with professionalism and the function of a trade union" (p. 23). In his opinion, these 'two sides of the same coin' are not completely incompatible. Since they are both important, teachers will have to, at times, stress trade union rights and at other times emphasize professional responsibilities. It is a question of striking the right balance. Casey has one caveat--"the union cannot act both as judge and defence counsel. The union, *per se*, cannot be part of the disciplinary process" (p. 25).

Barber (1995) favours a professional association, in this case a General Teaching Council. He sees it as crucial to the successful restructuring of the teaching profession in England, that can be accomplished only "by a body which has the confidence of both the

government and the teaching profession and which is committed to the priority of the long-term development of the teaching profession” (p. 79). A General Teaching Council could “enhance the standing and quality of the teaching profession if all of its members were required periodically to discuss with peers their career and professional development and the development of their pedagogical and other professional skills” (p. 81). Barber associates with the General Teaching Council the issues of professional development and professional learning. “The profession itself should also lay down minimum expectations for involvement in professional development over a five-year period” (p. 81). Tomlinson (1991) states that a General Teaching Council would benefit both the public and the profession. He outlines three ways in which a GTC would work:

1. by setting conditions for entry to the profession, especially the pre-entry training, required and promoting professional development of teachers throughout their service. In this way it would engage with the fundamental question of what kind of teachers we need and how their formation may be begun and carried forward.
2. by developing and applying a code of professional conduct, informed by an explicit professional ethic. It would thus strengthen public confidence in the profession and the profession’s own sense of its worth and the value of its service to society.
3. by involving in these processes many who are not teachers, notably parents and employers. This would widen the basis of understanding and consent within our society for the purposes and processes of education.

Lawrey (1981) defends the concept of the professional institution or association. He believes that viewing a professional body as a control to entry to an occupation is to misunderstand its full role. Unlike trade unions and learned societies, professional associations are concerned with the profession in its entirety—equally with the member practitioners, with the practices and services based grounded in skills and knowledge, and with its clients, those who use the services. He recognizes that the professional association with its multiple concerns is not

without weakness. The trade union, as a society of members, has responsibility for improving its members' working conditions. Because of this narrow approach, the union may not act as a professional body. This approach allows the union to take stronger action in representing its members' interests than professional bodies can take in view that the professional associations may have equal and sometimes conflicting responsibilities. Some members of professional associations do not recognize this distinction and expect more action from their association than it can give unless it were recognized as a union.

Ozga and Lawn (1981) view professionalism and unionism as fundamentally opposed and on the whole favour the latter even while accepting its limitations. However, that is not to say that teachers might not find both concepts useful for different purposes. Professionalism, Ozga and Lawn regard, as an ideology used by the government to assert power, and used by teachers to advance their specialization, as teachers, against their employers interests. On the other hand, as organized labour, teachers can use strategies and form alliances to protect the ideals of professional autonomy and service against government actions which threaten the quality or availability of education. Elsewhere, Ozga (1985) points out that union contracts protect teaching jobs in a declining market, but that the adherence to them may sacrifice educational objectives if the staff cuts are being sought for financial reasons and will lead to reductions in other services which then, have an effect on educational quality. It would appear that Ozga recognizes the dichotomy between professional and union behaviour, which she rejects, but, on balance, if it comes to conflict between union ideals and purposes and professional ideals and commitment, she would advise teachers to trust in and rely on the former.

Bascia (1994) recognizes that unions involve more than contracts and economic benefits. She asserts that “the local union can be a focus for professional community for a sub-group of teachers in a school” (p. 65) and cites the experiences in both in Rancho and Oak Valley, two of the sites at which she conducted her research. She concludes that “a union can help form, focus, bound, enhance, or extend community by identifying or reinforcing issues around which community members find commonality” (p. 66). Both Ozga and Bascia, while acknowledging the professional elements that are found in unions, have not attributed to them the characteristics that have often been accorded to professional associations.

There seem to be as many positions on the issue of teachers’ unionism versus professionalism as there are writers on the subject. Brisset (1992) is one who opts for the latter. He maintains that a profession is not a profession unless its practitioners act in the client’s interest. In collective bargaining, as he sees it, teachers act in their own interest. He contends that this position has carried a price. It has altered how teachers and their organizations are perceived. Perhaps Moore, who was commenting twenty years earlier (1970), was observing conditions that no longer apply. He did not see the difference between the labour union and the professional association as being so sharp. In general terms, he concluded that labour unions expect to conduct collective bargaining with employers for union membership and professional associations do not. They are concerned with quite different issues and problems. Probably in the hindsight of the late 1990s, it has become evident that the two kinds of issues interact with and have an effect upon one another. It is difficult to disentangle the financial, labour, and organizational items from the academic, technical, and ethical ones.

To look critically upon teachers' unions is not necessarily to discount their worth, even if it might be to examine their prime emphasis and the effect this produces. Carr-Saunders and Wilson (1966) noted that one object--raising the teaching profession's status--of the National Union of Teachers (England), founded in 1870, has given way over time, to assuring and safeguarding that teachers' interests would have greater emphasis than status and respectability. It was assumed that a higher level of compensation implied a public acknowledgment of teachers' important status and the way to attain that was to press for better compensation.

Summary

Of particular interest in the discussion of self-governing organizations is the work of Aucoin, Bohnen, Tuohy and Wolfson, and Riera *et al* who all bring a Canadian focus to the discussion. Much of Aucoin's work, perhaps coincidentally, can be seen in Bill 31 and the role that the Ontario College of Teachers will undertake. The structure and functions of self-governance that he describes parallels the structure and functions as they are described in The Privilege of Professionalism report. In order to understand the inherent dangers in self-government, the reading of both The Report of the Royal Commission on Civil Liberties (1968) and The Report on the Committee on the Healing Arts (1970) is essential. For the Ontario College of Teachers not to fall into these traps will require astuteness on its part.

Teachers in Ontario currently must belong to the Ontario Teachers' Federation as the umbrella group and to one of its five affiliates. While called 'federations', they have often assumed both the functions normally accorded to professional associations (responding to

continuous professional learning) and unions (responding to collective bargaining and economic issues). Teachers currently are relatively comfortable with this dual purpose of the federations. The proposed entry of a newcomer, the Ontario College of Teachers, has upset the balance. The literature suggests that professional associations and unions each play specific roles and undertake certain functions. Researchers in education, Sykes (1989) and Smith (1995) to a lesser extent, are adamant that the union is not the vehicle for pursuing professionalism.

Knowledge related to self-governance, professional associations, and unions helped to shape the questionnaire and inform more precisely the role of professional associations and unions. There is a need for teachers to understand the roles of both as distinct entities.

III Accountability

The idea of accountability can be traced far back in human history. The Bible records that God told man that he is accountable to Him for the stewardship of the earth. Aucoin (1978) places himself within this tradition when he presents public accountability as “a concept that specifies a relationship or complex of relationships whereby the state and its agencies are accountable to the public on the ground that they are established in order to protect and promote the public’s interest” (p. 31). Public accountability may also be defined as “a value that prescribes that those who exercise public authority, either directly or indirectly, be required to give an account of their behaviour to the public from which they derive their authority. The representative character of government, the responsibility for the administration of public policy and public interest in public policy are intertwined in public accountability” (p. 31). Browder

(1973), while acknowledging that a satisfactory definition of the term is difficult, nevertheless provides a general description of accountability basing his definition on the work of Newman and Rowbottom (1968). Accountability requires the occupant in a specific role, by those who have authorized that role, to answer for the work results expected from him in that role. This definition focuses on the demands upon the practitioner made by those who hold the formal power to demand an accounting. Problems arise when there are several formal powers whose expectations of the terms of accounting vary. Public accountability becomes difficult to satisfy if who or what represents the public is not clear. Who speaks for the public? That much of the literature on this subject is American speaks to the fact that United States is a country with many vocal, interested publics each representing special interests and ideologies, but claiming paramountcy. Conditions in Ontario are less extreme than those in the United States but do present some similarities.

Waselius (1985) notes that in the early part of this century, accountability for teachers was founded and “rooted in the continuing search for criteria to define and measure teacher effectiveness” (p. 10). The concern that Waselius (1985) expresses is that “the philosophy of education underlying the accountability movement negates the emphasis in education on the total growth of students and ignores individual student needs and patterns of learning. It emphasizes limited, measurable skills, thereby neglecting the personal and social growth of students” (p. 10).

McEwen (1995) provides background on the current educational reform movement, which began in the 1980s in reaction “to perceived shortcomings in education and international competition in all sectors. This worldwide movement has led to expectations for greater

accountability and an increase in monitoring and evaluation of schools and systems.

Accountability in education is not new. ... The mechanisms may have changed but the questions remain the same: who is responsible for what and to whom?" (p. 3). McEwen cites Kirst (1990)

who

summarized the similarities between early 20th-century and recent accountability movements by noting that both highlighted: (1) business as the model for educators to emulate; (2) objective measures as the primary criterion for educational evaluation; and (3) sophisticated accounting procedures and cost control as crucial for improving education. ... Political pressure for increased accountability is unremitting and rising due to public concern about the relative performance of U.S. students on international assessments and recognition that too many students lack the skills needed to improve the U.S. economic productivity. ... Accountability can be achieved through six broad based approaches: performance reporting, monitoring and compliance with standards or regulations, incentive systems, reliance on the market, changing the locus of authority or control of schools and changing professional roles. (p. 4)

Wagner (1989) believes that the demand for educational accountability arises from three basic concepts: concern about rising costs, the schools' failure to help a large number of youth, and "the frequent use of modern business as the ideal model for school management and accountability" (p. 17). He maintains that education has three serious problems to resolve: rising costs, too frequent failure to achieve results, and growing demands for accountability. Wagner notes that

Two conditions are necessary to establish obligations of accountability and the requirements they may impose: 1) a demonstrated responsibility on the part of an agent in relation to the matters for which s/he is considered answerable--this condition establishes who is accountable 2) a clear entitlement to some form of accounting because matters in question bear significantly on the interests of those who expect it. ... Any accountability relationship is no better than the likelihood of an agent's compliance with what it requires, and occasionally the additional compliance factor provided under a legal obligation may be necessary. (p. 60)

Lessinger (1973) defined accountability as being “responsible for something to someone with predictable consequences for the desirable and understandable performance of the responsibility” (p. 3), and he then described four types of accountability found in education. They relate to the questions of schools, school boards, and teachers and they include fiscal accountability for finances, custodial accountability for the welfare of children, professional accountability or teaching/learning standards for the production of resources and accountability for outcomes (e.g., college preparation and other appropriate preparation of students).

Darling-Hammond (1992) describes the accountability found in education in terms of mechanisms designed to protect the public. She recognizes five kinds of accountability in terms of the avenues by which they proceed and the type of accountability they deliver. Accountability includes political, legal, bureaucratic, professional, and market. She focuses particularly on professional accountability. A purposeful system must have three functions. It should “set educationally meaningful and defensible standards” (p. 81) to achieve public expectations, “establish reasonable and feasible means” (p. 82) so that implementation can occur and standards be upheld, and “provide avenues for redress or corrections in practice” (p. 82) when criteria have not been met. Hoyle and John (1995), citing Darling-Hammond’s (1989) report of professional accountability, explain that “governments may create professional bodies and structures to ensure competence and appropriate practice in occupations that serve the public and may delegate certain decisions about occupational membership, standards and practices to these bodies” (p. 109). Generally, the accountability movement encompasses a mix of bureaucratic and market forms. As conceptualized by Darling-Hammond, professional accountability embraces formal accountability through professional organizations.

Hoyle and John (1995) note that accountability includes meeting a required set of procedures developed so that the various clients of the profession know that the professional is meeting defined standards of practice. They report that the concept of professional accountability can be expanded beyond Darling-Hammond's formulation to include three dimensions: the first corresponds to Darling-Hammond's formulation, i.e., the accountability of professional bodies; the second involves the informal professional accountability whereby professionals recognize and act upon a duty to clients (Hoyle and John call this responsibility), and the third occupies an intermediate position whereby professionals are collectively responsible for monitoring and reporting on the quality of professional practice. They predicate accountability as based on Langford's (1985) agent-for-another, which he describes as accepting

responsibility for achieving the ends or purpose towards which his actions are directed; but the only purpose of his own which is involved in what he does is his desire to make a living. A principal, on the other hand, is responsible not merely for achieving but also for setting the ends of his actions; it is his purposes which are reflected in what he does and not merely those of others. (p. 111)

In other words, individual teachers, as well as the collectivity of teachers, are accountable to clients for the actions they take in the interests of those clients. Accountability procedures are merely the means by which the role as agents is guaranteed. Responsibility, on the other hand, is predicated upon the teacher acting as "principal." Hoyle and John continue that

In the accountability-responsibility relationship, there are areas of professional practice where accountability stands alone. In others, areas - the majority - responsibility and accountability are related but responsibility is exercised prior to accountability. And there are areas in which responsibility stands alone. Teachers are potentially accountable for these decisions (decisions made as principal and exercise judgment) *post factum*, and their accountability will take the form of a justification to the headteacher, ... of their outcomes, which may be in the form of products or processes. (pp. 111-112)

Hoyle and John believe that the current public demand for teacher accountability has led to various proposals for teacher appraisal, but teachers can properly exercise their responsibility only if they are prepared with the necessary professionalism. They identify three levels of professionalism—that which is exhibited by their technical knowledge and skill, which they term practical knowledge; that which entails exercising sound judgment about teaching situations and the needs of the individual therein; and the efforts teachers make to develop the competencies they need to make effective judgments in terms of professional learning, reflectiveness (as Schon (1987) terms it), and ethics.

Eraut (1992), who is cited by Hoyle and John, also uses the term accountability in a similar way to their usage of the word to connote responsibility. They report Eraut's components as

... a moral commitment to serve the interests of clients; a professional obligation to self-monitor and to periodically review the effectiveness of one's practice; a professional obligation to expand one's repertoire, to reflect on one's experience and to develop one's expertise; an obligation that is professional as well and contractual to contribute to the quality of one's organization; and an obligation to reflect upon and contribute to discussions about the changing role of one's profession in wider society. (p. 9) (Hoyle and John, 1995, p. 127)

Accountability is seen as a set of processes in which professionals are formally held accountable to their clients, and it either takes the form of prior requirements, defining the teacher's work, or some *post factum* forms of accounting for a teacher's professional activities. Responsibility is seen as a broader concept. Responsible professionals regard accountability seriously. However, because of the complexities of teaching situations and the difficulties (personal, technical, and political) of judging teaching, responsibility is essential. Wise (1986)

recognizes the complexities in teaching and describes professional accountability in measurable terms outlining what a teacher must do: teach in an intellectually honest and sensible manner and select appropriate instructional strategies for students.

For the Ontario Public School Boards' Association Policy Committee (1994), citing the Fair Tax Commission (1992), accountability is "the trust assumed by those who exercise authority to account for the manner in which they fulfil responsibilities entrusted to them; it is fundamental to preventing the abuse of power" (p. 4). However, LeBlanc (1994) expresses concern because

accountability is currently a high profile educational issue because of a number of factors: a perception that school systems have become less effective; a downturn in the economy; the challenges created by the advent of a new economy that is global and knowledge-based; and unmet demands for immediate new educational services. Calls for more educational accountability led first to increased regulation and later to restructuring. Restructuring in the form of increased local autonomy, empowerment of teachers, and stakeholders collaboration is now in vogue. (p. 24)

In other words, the concept of accountability is in danger of stretching to cover an unrealistic range of responsibilities for successful learnings being heaped not on the profession as a whole but on the individual classroom teacher. What is a reasonable limit to the teacher's accountability?

For Earl (1995), accountability has two indispensable elements: responsibility (legal or moral) and entitlement. She supports Darling-Hammond's view as to what accountability involves and she explains that accountability is not a measuring device in the same sense as a test, financial reports, indicators, a dropout rate, or just information (Earl, 1996). Its success relies on dialogue and discussion and requires trust, a common understanding, reciprocal support,

and the students who are generally “reported on.” While politicians and administrators have a responsibility for the quality of education and the provision of programs in their jurisdictions, teachers are much more personally and directly responsible to the students they teach and to their parents.

Entitlement is the justification for responsibility. Earl (1995) believes that the teacher accepts responsibility for teaching standards and behaviour and shares success for learning which ensues with the students and their parents (who have a share in the behaviour part of the learning responsibility). However, it is the teacher’s professional entitlement which gives to the teacher decisive responsibility over how concepts are introduced, skills demonstrated, knowledge transferred, judgment fostered, the group dynamics of a classroom managed, the learning gains assessed. Each teacher shares this entitlement with teaching colleagues and exercises it within administrators’ program policies and management procedures, but the teacher can only be held accountable for learning outcomes if professional entitlement is recognized as the reverse side of the coin.

Skolnik (1994), who was referring to the university system rather than an individual’s or a profession’s accountability, nevertheless speaks in cogent fashion to the issue of teaching’s accountability. Accountability has become an important public policy issue. It involves the use of accounting, efficiency, effectiveness, and value. “Ontario has accepted an approach to accountability which involves vesting governing boards with a major responsibility for overseeing institutional performance and it has accepted in principle the establishment of an external, provincial monitoring mechanism” (p. 122). Skolnik has accurately depicted the

expectations of accountability laid upon schools, school system administrations, and school board trustees. His description of Ontario's approach accords with two of the three types of accountability defined by Hill and Bonan (1991): "Bureaucratic accountability ... a relationship with higher authority based on adherence on rules [and] political accountability ... a relationship based on reciprocal obligations" (p. 44). The third type, professional accountability, involves individuals taking the initiative in judging what services the clients require and how best to deliver them; having them act in an accountable manner to one another because "professionals performing interdependent tasks answer to one another for performance" (p. 45); their accepting responsibility for balancing the different needs and expectations of the authorities, other peers, and their clients. Professionals are not free to take a passive approach to their environment. They must find ways of overcoming barriers to effective client service and they work in the demanding setting of being accountable in three directions: upward to higher authorities, laterally to peers, and downward to clients. For Doddard (1992), there seem to be three forms of accountability--moral which involves being answerable to clients, professional which involves being responsible to oneself and one's colleagues, and contractual which involves being accountable to one's employer.

The accountability of teachers seems to depend on the legal arrangements under which they work. Duke (1995) argues that the

bureaucratic model holds teachers accountable for complying with policies, regulations and contractual obligations. The professional model is based on the expectation that teachers will demonstrate certain proficiencies or competencies associated with effective practice ... [and he might have added but did not, that it holds the teacher accountable to her peers and to judgement by her peers]. The market model meanwhile is based on student outcomes and customer satisfaction. (p. 191)

Duke's conclusions reflect all too accurately the American situation and are not entirely applicable to Ontario.

Sockett (1993) believes accountability is being seen as a panacea for the improvement of education. He maintains that the emphasis on accountability has resulted in a costly bureaucratic aggravation. Speaking of the American experience, he states that accountability systems were developed because the public began to doubt teachers and *in loco parentis* yielded to due process: "Political attack on professional incompetence among teachers [and in Ontario, political attack on education, which includes attacks on teachers] provided [a] rationale for imposing tighter controls of personnel and finance" (p. 109). This is also the state in Ontario--political attacks on education have resulted in tighter controls (e.g., amalgamation of school boards, new funding model discussions). He outlines three particulars with which a system of teacher accountability must be compatible. The very best standards of practice that exist must be incorporated. Professional teachers must search out ways to improve quality in their practice and ethical standards must be imposed upon the roles of teaching. Sockett (1990) states that professional accountability must resolve the tension between public and professional control. He contends that there should be some form of public control and that, since professional aspiration suggests a measure of autonomy, there must be some form of professional control.

For Becher and Maclure (1982), accountability represents more than a desired specified performance. They identify methodical self-monitoring by individuals and institutions, regular curriculum and periodic reviews of curriculum and methods, a variety of evaluation forms, wide-

ranging public discussion of educational issues, and a greater attempt than currently in practice to utilize existing and new research to effect change in schools and other social processes.

Unfortunately, the concept of accountability has proved to be quite elastic and successively it has expanded to include many notions of responsibility and monitoring that it originally did not call for. It is a case of changing the original intention as procedures prove to be less than ideal. In 1995, for example, a publication of the Ontario Council on University Affairs (OCUA) affirmed that institutions receiving public funds must be accountable for their actions. Originally, accountability was achieved by providing information, usually financial, to show that public funds had been appropriately allocated, but a broader definition emerged in the 1970s and early 1980s. Dressel (1980) found that “in recent years ... there has been a tendency to move beyond the post-audit into what might be called program audit or program evaluation” (OCUA, 1995, p. 21). “In Canada, the same period saw the development of ‘comprehensive auditing’ encompassing the concept of ‘value for money’ (economy, efficiency and effectiveness)” (OCUA, 1995, pp. 21-22). Referring to the university system, Monahan (1985) argued that while accountability encompassed program evaluation, it also extended beyond the assessment of program quality to include measuring performance against stated objectives and determining if the same results could be achieved by expending fewer resources. Traditionally, evaluation has been solely concerned with outcomes of effectiveness and quality. Today, however, accountability has the substantial new component of efficiency which incorporates the question of how outcomes and use of resources are related. This change of understanding of accountability, of course, puts it at the level of the operating system rather than at the professional service level of the individual practitioner.

Hoyle and John (1995) report that the Conservative governments (which held power in England from 1979 to 1997) have established policies to increase the accountability of the professions. These were directed at all professions, including the prestigious ones of medicine and law. It is not surprising that the teaching profession has not been immune.

MacMillan (1993) recognizes that central to teacher professionalization is autonomy. However, for most Western countries, school teaching is an institution-defined profession and autonomy is often not found in institutions. He warns that without significant autonomy, educators “will continue to be hindered, individually and collectively, from developing the skills and ethical commitments that are essential to high-quality professional practice” (p. 200).

Cullen’s (1992) study which investigated teachers’ perspectives on accountability presents the following eight conclusions:

- All teachers are accountable; accountable to multiple audiences and accountable for performance (and non-performance) of specific obligations to each audience.
- Accountability is a complex, multidimensional concept comprising four distinct views: personal, collegial, contractual, and to clients.
- One’s view of accountability is influenced by the nature of the relationship with those to whom the accountability is expressed.
- Audiences mentioned most often were those with whom the teachers work in close proximity; audiences tended to be local audiences.
- Teachers are accountable for performance of curricular responsibilities.
- Teachers are accountable for student academic growth and achievement.
- There are two primary audiences to whom teachers were accountable: students and oneself.
- The notion of professionalism is embedded in teachers’ meanings of accountability.

Sockett (1990) summarizes the criteria for professional accountability as it relates to teachers in four phrases. It requires:

- 1) a common moral basis: it must embody a basis of agreed-upon principles, accepting that there will be validly held moral differences;
- 2) multifaceted judgment: it must contain the potential for agents, professional peers, and constituents to deliver account—that is, make a judgment—according to standards regarding the assessment of individual teachers' teaching skills, to student scorers, and to teachers' veracity, fairness, and so on;
- 3) local accessibility: it must have a local focus, answering primarily to the rights of students, colleagues, and parents and only secondarily to the public at large, and providing for redress of grievances; and
- 4) teachers' maintenance: it must be constructed in such a way that professional teachers have a stake in maintaining its integrity and the public trust it develops. (pp. 235-236)

Summary

The literature review on accountability is wide-ranging in terms of sectors that must respond to it. The term, early on, was limited to those involved in fiscal accounting, but today has become a term used in many quarters, including Ontario's education system, which recently established the Education Quality and Accountability Office with the responsibility for developing and implementing a comprehensive provincial testing program in Ontario.

The historical dimension examined in this thesis will include aspects of accountability of teachers over the time period from the early 1800s. Accountability is also one of the four areas that will be explored with teachers in their response to the OCT. Knowledge of this component

has provided the background to explain accountability, for the purposes of this study, “as a relationship in which the state and its agencies are responsible to the public since they are established to protect and promote the public’s interest; its essence is ‘good communication and genuine respect’”. The usage of the term in French is as follows: “Obligation de rendre des comptes: responsabilité que l’état et ses agences ont envers la protection et la promotion des intérêts publics; cette responsabilité repose sur la communication et le respect.” The explanation has purposefully been kept broad to allow teachers, in responding to the survey, to include all aspects of accountability which they, because of the situation in which they find themselves, understand belong to teaching.

The attempt to provide a wide-ranging view of accountability is deliberate. It is necessary to understand it from as many aspects and sectors as possible, since the College of Teachers will have accountability as one of its prime functions. It will be accountable to the public. Teachers also have multiple audiences—students, school boards and administrations, governmental organizations and agencies, peers and professional groups—and to each audience as Cullen (1992) determined, specific obligations.

IV Professional Learning

In this thesis, the term “professional learning” is used as synonymous with professional development and continuing professional education. Houle (1980) uses the term “learning” rather than “education” because the focus is on the actions of individuals or groups: “Learning is the process by which people gain knowledge, sensitiveness, or mastery of skills” (p. xi). The

processes and procedures are secondary. Professional learning, according to Hargreaves (1995), recognizes and better expresses the responsibility of the individual “to learn”; that learning can be informally undertaken and adopt many forms, not merely that which occurs in courses and workshops; and the use of the adjective “professional” in all three terms probably ensures that they cover much the same territory. The Royal Commission on Learning (1994d) referred to lifelong professional learning as a continuum, but Bennett and Fox (1993) narrowed their concern to continuing professional education (CPE) and taking a functionalist view, defined it as a “a technical process to help professionals provide better service to clients” (p. 264). Doddard (1992) related professional development to the issues of quality and standards when he stated that “professional development of teachers (learning for teachers) is an essential component in quality. It interrelates the needs of the individual teacher with the challenges of the job. The motivation of teachers to remain learners and to engage in professional, staff, institutional and curriculum ... throughout their careers underpins professional accountability and ensures responsibility” (pp. 80-81).

Schon (1987) seems to see continuous professional learning as having value primarily because of its effect. He alludes to “thoughtful practitioners (p. 11), ... [in] the reflective practicum” (p. 37), those teachers who recognize the challenge and responsibility of keeping current and integrating and using research results to provide an effective curriculum. Schon views professional knowledge as having two facets. Facts, rules, and procedures applied “non-problematically to instrument problems” (p. 39) are the result of technical training, but if professional knowledge is viewed as “thinking like a ...[for example, thinking like a teacher], ... students will learn relevant facts and operations but will also learn the forms of inquiry by which

competent practitioners reason their way, in problematic instances, to [a] clear connection between general knowledge and particular cases” (p. 39). Munby (1996), in analysing Schon, believes that he “makes it clear that, for learning to teach, [the] important thing one needs to know cannot be told by anyone else; only the experience of being a teacher provides this knowledge” (p. 133).

Bergen (1987) reports that, in using the generally accepted traits of a profession, evidence of the teacher’s professional growth may be characterized by:

1. continued self-renewal and updating in one’s field of special knowledge and in the skills and methodology of instruction;
2. remaining informed about related social, professional and educational issues;
3. increased involvement in the affairs of one’s professional organization at the local and provincial levels, and of providing leadership in furthering its goals;
4. working together with colleagues, especially in specialist councils, in the development of instructional strategies and materials; and,
5. exercising independent initiative in the solution of problems. (pp. 26-27)

Lowenthal (1981) defines continuing education for professionals as “education and training beyond the basic professional degree for license ... as training undertaken after completion of that specialized study” (p. 519). This training provides new skills and knowledge to “help professionals apply knowledge and skills they already had or once knew” (p. 519). He notes that the public and the professions realize that initial licensure is not enough to ensure continuing competence. This realization is leading to demands for a re-licensing and recertification process. Information is accruing so rapidly that the professionals can no longer acquire at the beginning of their careers all the information, skills, and attitudes they will need for

effective practice during their lives as professionals. Therefore, continuing education has been mandated by some legislatures for many professions in response to public and professional pressure (Lowenthal, 1981). Ontario's Legislature has virtually imposed this requirement on the health professions. Lowenthal explains the reason that mandatory continuing education is being legislated is that the voluntary approach has failed. Generally, however, most professionals are anxious to keep current with their specialized knowledge to provide the best service to the public.

France (1990) cites the Quality of Education Review Committee (1985) which states that in-service education is essential for teachers because they are expected to respond to changes in education and to numerous socioeconomic conditions that affect them and their students, and because initial education cannot meet the needs of teachers throughout their entire career. These changes make it necessary to examine the role of teaching in light of high teacher expectations and teachers' traditional responsibilities. The attitudes of teachers influence learning. France reasons that "it is more critical in teaching than some other professions that continuing education should explicitly aim at attitudinal as well as knowledge and skill development" (p. 116).

One of the functions that self-governing organizations take on is the monitoring of professional learning, professional development or continuing professional education. The Ontario College of Teachers has that role set out in Bill 31. Closely tied to professional learning are credentials and standards of practice, both of which the College would assume.

Summary

The literature shows that there is strong support for continuous learning and that professionals are remaining current and up-to-date. The ultimate goal in professional learning is to ensure that the client receives the best service available. Teachers recognize the strengths and benefits of professional learning and are involved in a variety of activities in professional learning. As Lowenthal (1981) argues though, the voluntary approach has not been successful and mandatory continuing education has been the result.

The choice of the term “professional learning” rather than “professional development” was deliberate since the first term suggests an on-going dynamic activity rather than the stereotype that “PD” often suggests. The growth of professional learning is one of the areas that will be explored in a general sense in the historical review of the development of the Ontario College of Teachers. It is also one of the four areas that will be explored with teachers in their response to the OCT. Knowledge of this component has provided background in understanding professional learning. The Privilege of Professionalism report refers both to professional learning and to a professional learning framework that is recommended that the OCT develop. Professional Learning extends beyond certificated courses; it includes activities that will transfer to the classroom (or appropriate setting) to benefit students and/or other learners. Formation professionnelle inclut toutes activités qui, au-delà des cours agréés, peuvent être transposées dans la salle de classe (ou tout autre environnement propice) pour enrichir les élèves et/ou tout autre apprenante ou apprenant. Professional Learning Framework sets clear priorities for professional learning; provides a setting in which teachers, individually and together, can establish their

professional learning plans. Cadre de formation professionnelle donne des objectifs prioritaires pour la formation professionnelle; établit des paramètres pour la planification, individuelle et en collective, de la formation professionnelle des enseignant(e)s. These explanations were gleaned from The Privilege of Professionalism report.

V Credentials and Standards

Credentials

Every profession has had to create flexible means to meet demands for service, as Sykes (1989) explains, and in most instances, the means do not threaten the core of practices which define their status. If assistance is redefined, then less qualified individuals have been allowed restricted practice, or subordinate roles have been created and institutionalized. In teaching, however, various expedients (emergency credentials, unanticipated and inappropriate assignment of teachers, and increases in class size) have been used to meet demands for additional assistance and then have damaged the profession. Sykes explains how they have had this effect:

First, resorting to emergency credentials during times of shortage has allowed the unqualified to enter and stay in the profession. ... Such teachers convey incompetence to an increasingly educated public, and contribute to teaching's image problems.

Second, increases in class size make teaching more difficult and less rewarding for teachers [particularly with the expectation of individualized instruction and the influx of children from diverse cultures in many of Ontario's schools, that Sykes does not discuss].

Finally, the heedless resorting to unqualified teachers undermines teaching's claim to professional status. It is relatively easy to enact the outer forms of commonplace teaching--lecturing, checking seatwork, keeping order--in many classrooms, without in fact teaching well. But to the casual and uninformed eye,

all is well in such classrooms. Consequently, it appears that “anyone can teach,” that no special knowledge or skill is required. (pp. 259-260)

In these situations, the need to insist upon a profession level of preparation for teaching is strongly linked to the recognition of the need for professionalism and the professionalization of school teaching. This connection implies that professional certification is not only of concern to teachers but should be of concern to Ontario’s Ministry of Education and Training and school boards. On the other hand, for Galbraith and Gilley (1985) “professional certification is a voluntary process by which a professional association or organization measures the competencies of individual practitioners” (p. 12). This proposition implies that credentialing is the means that professionals (in this case, teachers) use to identify those qualified for membership among them and those not qualified. Certification appears to be the means of including and excluding.

Bratton and Hildebrand (1980), whom Galbraith and Gilley cite, distinguish between certification, accreditation, and licensure:

Certification : the process by which a professional organization or independent external agency recognizes the competence of individual practitioners.

Accreditation: the process whereby an agency or association grants public recognition to a school, college, or university, or specialized study program that meets certain predetermined qualifications or standards.

Licensure: a mandatory legal requirement for certain professionals in order to protect the public from incompetent practitioners. Licensing procedures are generally established or implemented by a political governing body that prescribes practice without a license. (p. 12)

It should be noted that accreditation, while mainly an American practice, is occurring also in other jurisdictions in faculties of education (e.g., Scotland, British Columbia). Accreditation has arisen because of the great diversity in a national higher education system which produces

enormous variation in standards and, since it serves a federal country, operate under many different legal arrangements as defined by individual states.

Bratton and Hildebrand (1980) note that the primary purpose for accreditation is to evaluate instructional programs, while certification focuses on measuring competencies of individual practitioners. The competencies identified as important and unique to the profession are central to the certification conferred. The skill of experienced practitioners (rather than professionals at entry-level) should be reflected in the competencies which are performance- rather than academic-oriented.

Batsche, Knoff, and Peterson (1989) offer the example of school psychologists as a profession that now holds itself accountable for four of the components of a profession: training, standards, practice, and ethics. They view the credentialing process as critical, perhaps most important, to professionalization and accountability. This process, of course, follows where the licensing of a group is delegated from a governmental authority to a professional authority. Tuohy and Wolfson (1976) believe that licensing is more likely to be entrusted to an occupational group in which members have extensive training in a specialized body of knowledge. There are several advantages for the government and the public along with the profession to be delegated to license. This grant to license “greatly increases the degree to which ... professionals are conditioned [to perform their] social obligations. In assuming licensing authority, the professional group agrees to the general condition that it be exercised in the public interest. In order to fulfil this general obligation, the group then proceeds to impose on its individual members a more specific set of conditions” (p. 69).

A professional licence indicates responsibility for both the individual and the group since they are interdependent: “those at group-level establish the parameters within which individual decision-making takes place” (Tuohy and Wolfson, 1976, p. 69). When a professional group licenses an individual, it is granting permission to use a specialized body of knowledge and carry out technical functions for which the effective use of that knowledge base is essential.

As Curry and Wergin (1993) commenting on self-governing professions point out, licensing institutions exist to ensure professional competence, particularly when the candidate is ready to assume the role of the professional (i.e., at entry into professional practice). They recognize that the demand for recertification is intensifying. The role of these licensing and regulatory bodies is not only to inquire into public complaints but also analyse some facets of professional practice to detect anomalies.

Riera *et al* (1976) regard the power to license future practitioners as the most important of the self-regulating powers. Licensing occupations is controlled provincially, resulting in variation across Canada. Self-licensing is delegated usually by specific legislation. These authors identify self-licensing strictly “only [as applying to] those occupations which have the exclusive right to practise” (p. 141), but they also note that there are “other types of licensing and certification [which] ... allow associations to exercise significant influence over entry into the occupations and significant control over professionals” (p. 141). In Ontario, both compulsory certification and voluntary certification are in use.

Not everyone supports licensing. Riera *et al* cite two vocal opponents. Dodge (1972) argued that the explanations usually given to promote self-licensing are not supported by logic. Friedman (1963) accused the professions of using licensing for their own purposes that go beyond the original design of the legislation. He believed that licensing would create a monopoly for the profession at the public's expense.

There have been two important reports in Canada, cited by Riera *et al*, that have referred to the risks associated with self-licensing. The Report of the Royal Commission on Civil Liberties (1968) (the McRuer Report) stated:

The granting of self-government is a delegation of legislative and judicial functions and can only be justified as a safeguard to the public interest. The power is not conferred to give or reinforce a professional or occupation status. The relevant question is not "do the practitioners of this occupation desire the power of self-government?", but "is self-government necessary for the protection of the public?". No right of self-government should be claimed merely because the term "profession" has been attached to the occupation. The power of self-government should not be extended beyond the present limitations, unless it is clearly established that the public interest demands it. (p. 140)

The Report of the Committee on the Healing Arts (1970) stated:

The history of the regulatory bodies in Ontario abounds in decisions, policies and regulations of a truly or apparently restrictive practice nature. Our examination of the practices of the professions discloses an inclination on the part of the statutory governing body to see itself as the defender of the interests of its members. (p. 140)

Norcini and Shea (1993) recognize that the demands for recertification represent a radically changed condition. The expansion of knowledge, the professional culture, and the clients served by the professionals have all changed. There is a renewed demand on professions for improved standards and greater public accountability. These writers believe that

recertification would ensure that an individual is competent as demonstrated in actual practice, would show that the practitioner has the ability to act on a wide series of situations and problems, and would reveal the practitioner's interpersonal and ethical characteristics. They suggest that the assessments used for recertification include the three components of "assessment of practice outcomes, ... assessment of potential to practice, ... and assessment of professional qualities" (pp. 82 - 99).

If teachers desire professional status, Wise (1986) argues, they, not the state education authorities, must control certification similar to other professionals. Wise and Darling-Hammond (1987) believe that teaching can follow the path of other occupations that have achieved professional status because "the primary rationale is a need for quality control over a process in which a service is provided to a client who inevitably knows less than the provider. ... A first step in controlling membership quality and toward professionalization is the creation of a professional licensing examination that discriminates between those who are and those who are not qualified to practise. The basis for professionalism is a guarantee to the public that all entrants to the profession have adequately mastered the basic knowledge and skills needed to perform responsibly before they are licensed to practice independently" (pp. v-vi). A licensing examination has been used in Ontario in the past but could scarcely be called professional.

Standards

The control of the quality of professional work through certification to practise is, however, not sufficient to accommodate the demand for public accountability. Insistence on continuing competence brings forward the issues of standards and continuous professional learning. These are critically related to the responsibility of a collective of professionals when they are granted the power of self-regulation.

Sykes (1989) notes that, historically, standards evolved slowly in stages and unevenly across the professions. Science and the modern university have strongly influenced this evolution, from apprentice arrangements to formal education in a professional school. He uses medicine as the example citing the American arrangements for the profession. Its early development was necessary because of the risks involved in having non-qualified practitioners or qualified doctors malpractice. Becoming a doctor has traditionally involved a university based pre-entry education which includes both an appropriate undergraduate experience and a rigorous professional one, selection for entry from one stage to the next, and a professional examination following academic graduation. This system entitles the successful candidate to practise in a variety of professional areas, experiencing actual practice problems under gradually lessening supervision until the neophyte professional is deemed fully qualified for autonomous practice. This process ensures there is a level of performance satisfactory to all parties—clients, peers, authority, and the public.

Sykes (1989) states that today's teaching standards appear inadequate and that the professions are often invoked as the proper model for teaching to remedy the situation. However, the traditional professions whose members are produced by the professional schools are themselves under criticism. The professions are concerned that in raising standards, there will still be sufficient practitioners to meet the demand. Thus, while professional self-regulation may be one of the steps to counter criticism, it is not a *sine qua non*.

Nevertheless, Foster (1986) believes that there are gains to be made by having educators accepted as professionals. They will then be able to establish their own legal standards. Using peer-established professional standards, teachers can be expected to have prior knowledge of required performance and conduct. Teachers determine professional standards and then judge whether or not the standards are being followed. With teachers responsible at a local level, standards may be adjusted based on local circumstances. Peer judgement based on experts' knowledge and experience will recognize that professionals, unlike others in society, are involved in activities which cannot always guarantee success. Success is contingent upon context, which includes student characteristics and learning conditions and, in turn, real honest mistakes and errors in judgment sometimes, which should not attract liability.

In 1985, Albert Shanker, then President of the American Federation of Teachers, considered that the creation of "a Professional Teacher Board" would be a useful step in achieving recognition that teaching is a profession. It would assume responsibility for the development of standards, an ethical code for teachers, and a process for dealing with competency issues. In 1996, he amplified his earlier statement outlining what is required if

teaching is to be termed a true profession. High standards must be set and maintained for entry into teaching and for evaluating practitioners. Those who do not meet those standards must be assisted and, if necessary, counselled out of teaching.

The U. S. National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS) (1991) has published a set of standards for the profession which indicate what a teacher should know and be able to do. Each standard can be subsumed under one of five categories:

1. Teachers are committed to students and their learning.
2. Teachers know the subjects they teach and how to teach those subjects to students.
3. Teachers are responsible for managing and monitoring student learning.
4. Teachers think systematically about their practice and learn from experience.
5. Teachers are members of learning communities. (pp. 6-8)

These statements have been characterized by Apple (1986) and cited in Coulter (1996) as a “slogan system” which is described as a statement “vague enough to allow a wide range of groups and individuals with differing agendas to support it, yet specific enough to offer something concrete to practitioners” (Coulter, 1996, p. 122). It must “have ability to charm,” and a style that “grabs us” (Apple, 1986, p. 116). The Board would certify teachers who first volunteer to be involved in the process and who then can demonstrate that they meet the standards. The 1994 publication of NBPTS stated its intention in term of requirements as follows:

The fundamental requirements for proficient teaching are relatively clear: a broad grounding in the liberal arts and sciences; knowledge of the subjects to be taught, of the skills to be developed, and of the curricular arrangements and materials that organize and embody that content; knowledge of general and subject-specific methods for teaching and for evaluating student learning; knowledge of students and human development; skills in effectively teaching students from racially, ethnically, and socioeconomically diverse backgrounds; and the skills, capacities and dispositions to employ such knowledge wisely in the interests of students.
(p. 4)

The development of standards was completed by practising classroom teachers agreeing through consensus what teachers should know and be able to do. There are identifiable common characteristics used in accomplished teaching that are challenging and can be attained.

Wise and Leibbrand (1996) describe the partnership between the state and the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) by which NCATE, using the standards it has developed, accredits Schools of Education. In many jurisdictions, the process is voluntary, but there is a growing trend to use it which they believe indicates a remarkable breakthrough for the teaching profession and echoes what is already occurring in other professions. In the United States, in earlier times, the authority to approve preparation programs was delegated to the relevant professional associations in the various fields by the various states. The teaching profession now seems, nationally, to be catching up.

Forrester (1993) cites Chase's (1980) warning that should a profession not demonstrate its ability for responsible self-monitoring, it risks being accountable to someone else. Moreover, taking on this responsibility and developing articulated standards, professions may achieve their objects. Standards serve to provide direction for the preparation and professionalism of members. In turn, standards help professionals to converse more effectively with other professions and the general public. Anderson (1992) would endorse such sentiments. He cites, in justification, the contention of Gibson and Mitchell (1990) that "a profession's commitment to appropriate ethical and legal standards is critical to the profession's earning, maintaining and deserving the public's trust. Without this trust, a profession ceases to be a profession" (p. 22). Anderson supports the idea of adopting professional standards which provide a basis for

accountability, result in reduced ethical and legal vulnerability, and ensure consistency in training and practice.

Summary

Credentials and standards of practice are two areas over which professional organizations have control. Credentials are awarded when practice or entry standards have been demonstrated. Currently, Ontario does not have standards of practice determined for teachers. Very few world jurisdictions have standards established for teachers. Now, if one completes an education program with faculty of education recommendation, one receives an Ontario Teaching Certificate.

The idea of mandatory recertification was introduced by the Minister of Education, Dave Cooke, with the February 1995 announcement about the teacher education reforms. This was quickly reworded to a more gentle term--“more properly, ongoing professional development”--but the damage had already been done. Recertification would remain in some teachers’ minds.

Through this literature search, many areas that relate to a professional governance body have been explored in this literature search. This review has highlighted theories and definitions related to numerous facets of a self-governing organization. While additional studies and theorists could be included, the selected works outline the main and facets of self-governance.

The remainder of this study will explore the development of the Ontario College of Teachers and will reference the literature review as appropriate. Primary attention will be given to accountability, professional learning, professional standards, and self-governance.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the details of research design and methodology used in this thesis. It begins with a re-statement of the study's purpose and describes the research design with some discussion of the rationale for its selection. The several phases of the research involving documentary analysis, interviews, and survey are outlined; the development of the instruments used for the data collection is delineated; and the process of data collection and analysis are reported.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the present study is:

1. to describe the development of the Ontario College of Teachers by focussing on professional learning and accountability, two functions of the College, and tracing these two aspects over time and in two existing models of teacher self-governance, and
2. to examine teacher response to the proposed model of an Ontario College of Teachers.

Although the research had several phases, as described in Chapter 1, the study may be divided into two sections, one qualitative and the other quantitative. To some extent, the research activities are interactive, to some extent, concurrent and, to some extent, sequential. The search for documents and ensuing documentary analysis began the study and the examination of these texts led to other sources of information, including additional interviews (other than those initially planned). The information garnered through the interviews led to re-examination of many documents. The literature search did not yield an appropriate survey instrument; thus one needed to be created. The literature search did, however, provide confirmation of the determinants selected for inclusion in the questionnaire.

The first part, the review of documents, assesses the record of the historical development of the idea of a college of teachers for Ontario. There follow an analysis of major commission and committee reports--that of the Royal Commission on Education in Ontario (1950), of the Provincial Committee on Aims and Objectives of Education (1968), and of the Royal Commission on Learning (1994)--along with various reports on teacher education and professionalization. These included Teacher Education in Ontario: Current Practice and Options for the Future (1987), the Final Report of the Teacher Education Review Steering Committee (1988), and many council reports, as well as the position papers of the teachers' federations and professional associations presented to the commissions or to the Minister of Education at various times. In many instances, reference was found to developing a college of teachers model but the actual development of such a self-governing body never occurred. Through documentation and interviews, a comparative study was made of two existing college of teachers models--the General Teaching Council of Scotland (GTC) and the British Columbia College of Teachers

(BCCT)—with the aim of examining the similarities and differences between those organizations and the announced Ontario College of Teachers.

Interviews were conducted between October 1995 and June 1997 with individuals who have or had involvement with self-governing / self-regulating professional organizations and who have or had some experience with developing the concept of a self-governing professional organization. Since little has been written about proposals for a college of teachers in this province and the reasons why the idea was never adopted, the interviews were especially important for supplementing the information contained in both official and unofficial records. Personal insights and interpretations explaining, from the interviewees' perspectives, what happened and why, were garnered during the interviews. The interviewees often set the context describing the time, the individuals involved, and the ideas presented during the discussions about a college of teachers. This information provided the details that often were not recorded and helped to fill the gaps so that a more descriptive picture would be available. In Ontario, eight individuals were interviewed formally, in British Columbia, five and in Scotland, three. Each interview ranged from 45 minutes to 1.5 hours. In addition, there were informal discussions with Governing Council members of the GTC and BCCT. Still other persons were contacted to answer a specific question or to clarify a particular point. The list of formal interview participants appears in Appendix E.

As Gochros (1985) (cited by Winkler 1988) contends, "for most people, it is easier and more natural to respond to questions orally than in writing and a casual, relaxed setting leads to more spontaneous answers" (p. 307). The conversations took place in the interviewee's office,

home, or some other mutually agreed site. The interviews were open-ended, frank discussions. They were audio-taped, transcribed, checked for accuracy, and read and re-read many times for analysis.

To ensure reliability and consistency, all interviews were one-to-one meetings conducted by the investigator and all interviewees were initially asked the same questions, depending on their association with a college of teachers. However, follow-up questions were asked based on the responses given so that the investigator would understand circumstances that the interviewees were explaining from their points of view. The interview method was particularly advantageous because of its adaptability (i.e., allowing the interviewee to discuss at length a specific point) and flexibility (i.e., asking for clarification) in collecting diverse data from a variety of persons in a variety of locations. Using interviews helped to ensure that questions and responses given were understood and additional information could be pursued. The interviews yielded additional resources and often led to another interview as follow-up to the original interview or led to another person to be interviewed.

A mailed questionnaire survey formed the second part of the research. The purpose was to identify a sample of teachers' perceptions of the proposed OCT and their views on how they believe the proposed College will have an impact on them as practising classroom teachers and on the teaching profession in this province as a whole. Analysis of respondents' perceptions would provide needed information to the OCT Governing Council as it prepares to implement its proposed mandate, so in addition to the thesis' academic interest, its research findings would have immediate practical utility.

The Questionnaire

Since no suitable instrument was found which would measure the determinants selected through a review of the literature on professionalism, a questionnaire consisting of twenty-three items was designed. It had to serve two purposes:

1. to determine teachers' attitudes regarding the function of the proposed OCT and the effect they felt it would have on them and their colleagues; and
2. to gather demographic data about the respondents.

The Privilege of Professionalism report was studied to determine on which characteristics of a self-governing organization the survey should focus. This report influenced the development of the proposed OCT and, therefore, was the appropriate source, together with the literature on professionalism to isolate the variables and items to be used to investigate teacher response. The four grouped determinants selected were Professional Standards, Professional Learning, Accountability, and Self-governance which became Response to OCT Support.

A copy of the questionnaire is found in Appendix D. Its first part includes an item on learning about the Ontario College of Teachers, three items on personal response (initial response, current response, and changes to the response), six items on professional response (i.e., support) covering individual and professional practice and long term impact, four items on standards including certification and accreditation, six on professional learning, and three on accountability. The second part of the questionnaire requested demographic information (age range, sex, teaching experience and other work experience, teaching qualifications, educational

qualifications, additional qualifications, and an outline of recent professional learning activities). Space was provided for respondents to write additional comments.

Participants were asked to complete checklists to respond to the communication items and many of the demographic items. Using a five-point scale, they were asked to record the degree of importance they would accord (highly in favour, somewhat in favour, undecided, opposed, and strongly opposed) to items on personal response. There were open-ended questions on personal and professional practice and on some of the demographic items. A six-point scale (strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree, strongly disagree, and no opinion) was used to rate the degree of agreement/disagreement with items dealing with standards, professional learning, accountability, and self-governance.

The content validity of the survey was tested through four essential steps. First, the draft questionnaire was reviewed by a focus group session conducted in March 1996, consisting of representatives the local teachers' federations in the London, Ontario area. Four teachers representing three local federation units were involved. During this session, discussion centred on the major areas that the group believed would most affect teachers directly in the classroom. Thus, the questionnaire focused on the role of the College, professional standards, professional learning, and accountability. Concern about inclusion of part-time teachers was expressed with agreement that these teachers should be included in the survey. Following this session, some items were deleted and others were developed further for clarity.

In the second step, the questionnaire was reviewed and improved with a member of the thesis committee, the staff of OISE Statistical Consulting Service, OISE faculty, Thesis Research Seminar, four of the five provincial teachers' affiliate federation presidents, and two staff members at the Ontario College of Teachers Implementation Project. During this stage, items were corrected, added, and deleted to ensure that the final instrument would determine teachers' attitudes regarding the function of the proposed OCT and the effect they felt it would have on them and their colleagues. A number of changes were made to the original questionnaire.

Since Ontario's education system offers both elementary and secondary programs in the French language, it was decided that any French-first-language schools selected should receive any material developed for the study in French language. The translation into French of the questionnaire, covering letters and additional information which was sent to the principals and teachers of the selected French-first-language schools, occurred after the English-language package of materials had been completed and tested. Specific translators were chosen because they were employed in educational institutions, one as a translator, the other as a French-language editor. Their work was reviewed by the Coordinator of the Windsor French-language Campus of the University of Ottawa in order to ensure that a clear version that would be readily understood was available. At various stages of translation, the original and translated versions were discussed among the translators and the researcher to ascertain that the most acceptable and understandable terms were chosen for translation and to ensure that it replicated the English-language survey materials.

At step 4, the survey instrument was tested by a group of representatives from one of the federations in the London area not involved in the original focus group. The pilot study was conducted to appraise further the face validity of the questionnaire items, the clarity of the questions, and in the completeness of the survey instructions. Modest refinements were made to the questionnaire after the pilot study.

Population and Sample

The population for the survey consisted of the teachers employed in the publicly funded elementary and secondary schools in Ontario—a total of 112,336, as totalled by regions and listed by school boards in the 1993-1994 Directory of Education from the Ministry of Education and Training Directory, the most recent directory available in the Spring of 1996. Three hundred and seventy-five teachers in as many publicly funded elementary or secondary schools were randomly selected to provide the desired stratifications. The six Ministry of Education and Training regions (Central, Eastern, Midnorthern, Northeastern, Northwestern, and Western) were used to stratify the sample. The number of teachers identified from each region was prorated to the total population of elementary and secondary school teachers in the province.

A letter (Appendix A), along with a teacher information package consisting of a letter to the participant in the study (Appendix B), a list of terms (Appendix C), the questionnaire (Appendix D), a stamped addressed envelope, a request stamped postcard, and some butterscotch drops, was sent to the principal of the selected schools. The principal was asked to give the information package to a specific teacher. Based on the number of teachers in the school as

listed in the Ministry of Education and Training 1993-1994 Directory, a random number was selected to identify which teacher from the alphabetized teacher list would be asked to complete the survey. For example, if the Directory indicated that the school had 12 teachers, the random number would need to be between 1 and 12. If 4 was the random number selected, the principal was requested to asked the fourth teacher listed on the alphabetized teacher list. Similarly, if the school had 35 teachers on staff, the random number would be between 1 and 35. For teachers and principals in French first-language schools, the French-language translation was sent.

Data Collection

Of the 375 questionnaires mailed out, 181 were returned, a response rate of 48.3%. Two questionnaires returned were incomplete and could not be used. Eighty-nine of the respondents requested summary results of the research findings.

Method of Analysis

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS 6.1.2) was used to process the survey data. The data were analysed in customary fashion using descriptive statistics to indicate frequencies and distributions of the response by the categorical variables such as region, sex, age, educational attainment, and certification. Cross tabulations were prepared and the standard Chi-Square Test (χ^2) used to determine significant relationships.

The Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs Signed-Ranks Test was used with ordinal (rank-ordered) data to compare respondents' replies to two different variables. The Friedman Test for Related Sample, almost identical to the Wilcoxon test, was used for more than two comparisons at one time.

Cronbach's alpha (α), a coefficient of internal consistency reliability, was also used. By definition, this measures consistency of response to a number of items (questions) that all measure slightly different aspects of the same underlying concept. Values for Cronbach's α range between 0 and 1.0, with the value of 0.60 considered by convention to be the minimum required for research purposes.

The last analytical technique used was the analysis of variance (ANOVA), which is a statistical measure for comparing three or more groups of subjects with respect to a variable measured at the interval or ratio level. In this, the dependent variable is interval or ratio, while the independent variable(s) is/are categorical, nominal, or ordinal. In effect, analysis of variance is the statistical test of the difference of means for three or more groups. The Simple Factorial ANOVA used in this study was the multi-variate version, capable of handling several independent variables (as compared to the One-Way ANOVA version for a single independent variable), in which interval and ratio independent variables can also be included as covariates. The ANOVA output is itemized in Appendix F.

Summary

This chapter presented a description of the methodology and design of the study. The study design was described and the rationale for its selection was discussed. The instruments used for the data collection and implementation were reported and explained. The populations and sample were described and the tasks required to complete the collection and analysis were delineated. The tools used for analysis were explained in detail.

The next four chapters will describe the findings of the study, the historical and other documentary description, the interview information, and the survey data.

CHAPTER FOUR

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF THE COLLEGE OF TEACHERS CONCEPT IN ONTARIO

This chapter traces the evolution of the concept for a College of Teachers for Ontario from the time of Egerton Ryerson¹ (1803-1882) to the Royal Commission on Learning 1995. The story begins with the creation of a teachers' association responsible for the profession and develops in incremental steps over time, although discussion about a College of Teachers *per se* did not begin until 1886. However, the ideas of profession, accreditation, standards, and professional learning appeared much earlier. Ever since the beginning of the nineteenth century, the teachers in the province have been moving closer to recognition as a profession.

Althouse² (1929) indicated that in the Upper Canada of the nineteenth century, learning for the masses commanded little public respect. Few wanted to become teachers. A teaching assignment was all too often considered the last sanctuary for the incapable, the incompetent, and the unreliable. As Wilbur (1987) points out, elementary teaching in that time was regarded as a

¹Ryerson, Adolphus Egerton. As Assistant Superintendent of Education for Canada West for thirty-two years, he is credited with establishing a free, publicly funded educational program that was Christian-based. The Common Schools Act of 1846 grew out of his report regarding the components of a system of public instruction and objectives for teacher education.

²Althouse, John George. While in his later years, Dr. Althouse was the Chief Director of Education for Ontario, he is cited for his work as a doctoral student at the University of Toronto with his dissertation "The Ontario Teacher: A Historical Account of Progress 1800-1910" written in 1929. It was published by the Ontario Teachers' Federation in 1967.

low-status occupation, generally carried out by women, who had few other occupational choices early in the nineteenth century. The employment of male teachers for elementary schools was generally viewed as unsuitable, and as such, males that sought employment in schools were usually judged as being incapable of holding down a more demanding job. Barman (1991-92), as cited by Sheehan and Wilson (1994), characterized those who became teachers in the nineteenth century as follows: girls in between school and marriage; men using teaching as a step to another career; females without support; transitory workers using teaching to supplement income or combining teaching in the winter and labour in the spring; and experienced dedicated teachers. The decision to become a teacher was generally motivated by economics and often was a matter of self-selection (Sheehan and Wilson 1994).

Teacher qualifications varied greatly. At the upper end were those with a sound secondary education, while at the lower end were those who could scarcely read or write well enough to satisfy the school trustees. The majority were at the lower end. In addition, teaching was not a secure occupation: teachers were employed at the pleasure of trustees who were often themselves ignorant and unlearned (Althouse, 1929). Teachers were paid less than labourers. Publicly-expressed demands for improvement often included certification of teachers, creation of a suitable inspection strategy, and provision of a teacher training institution (Fiorino, 1978).

As early as 1799, teachers sought certification. One of the earliest references (Hodgins, 1894) to professional standards for teachers occurred in the Upper Canada Gazette of July 1799, entitled *The Qualifications of School Teachers in 1799*:

We are happy in being informed that no person will be countenanced, or permitted, by the Government to teach school in any part of this Province unless

he shall have passed an examination before one of our commissioners, and receive a certificate from under his hand specifying that he is adequate to the important task of tutor.

We conceive this piece of intelligence highly worth of remark, as it will, in a great measure, prevent the imposition which the inhabitants of this country have hitherto experienced from itinerant characters, who preferred that to a more laborious way of getting through life.

And on the other hand, the rising generation will reap infinite benefit from it, as it will tend to stimulate and encourage men of literary characters to make permanent residence among us (Hodgins, 1894, p. 33).

On July 6, 1799, another notice was published for the town of York (later Toronto):

Mr. William Cooper, teacher of Mathematics in this town, has, not long since, passed an examination before the Rev. John Stuart, and received a license to teach School in this town, and it is hoped that all ranks of people will patronize so laudable an institution (Hodgins, 1894, p. 33).

Notices of the opening of boarding schools also appeared. *Dr. W. W. Baldwin's proposed School at Toronto in 1802* titled the following notice was published on December 17, 1802:

Understanding that some of the Gentlemen of this Town have expressed much anxiety for the Establishment of a Classical School, Dr. Baldwin begs leave to inform them and the Public that he intends, on Monday, the third day of January next, to open a School, in which he will instruct twelve Boys in Reading, Writing, the Classics and Arithmetic.

The terms are for each Boy eight Guineas per annum, to be paid quarterly. One guinea entrance and one cord of Wood to be supplied by each Boy on opening the School (Hodgins, 1894, p. 33).

While the first two announcements celebrate the achievement of the credentials for each man, the third notice makes no reference to qualifications. It may be assumed that Dr. Baldwin was qualified to teach, but not all those who taught were certificated as teachers.

Althouse (1929), however, believed that certification would not solve all the problems. Equally serious was the lack of adequate school funding and teacher training. The effort to increase revenue available for Common Schools had but moderate success. The provision of teacher training appeared more readily attainable and, moreover, would improve the calibre of instruction.

Fiorino (1978) quotes Ryerson (1847), who stated: “There cannot be good schools without good teachers; nor can there be, as a general rule, good Teachers, any more than good Mechanics, or Lawyers, or Physicians, unless, persons are trained for the profession” (p. 14, Ryerson, 1847, p. 156). Ryerson anticipated that teacher training itself would elevate teaching to the status of a profession. He “argued that some form of teacher training would surely raise the teacher’s image in the eyes of the community and encourage more genuinely dedicated and able individuals to enter teaching” (Fiorino, 1978, p. 15). ““The all-important and noble vocation of School-teaching will be honoured; and School-teachers will respect themselves, and be respected as other professional men”” (p. 15, Ryerson, 1847, p. 160). He believed that proper training—a formal teacher training program—would raise teachers’ qualifications and, as a result, ensure a higher financial return for teachers. He reasoned that teacher training would benefit students by expediting the learning process, since a well-trained teacher would use resources much more effectively and efficiently than an untrained teacher. It was this third reason that Ryerson would often voice, citing the benefits of a public education in order obtain more funding for the educative process. Ryerson recognized the vocational aspect of teaching which elevated teaching beyond vocation, but not all persons involved in education held the same lofty views as he.

From 1840 to 1860, much of the school legislation was directed toward obtaining better teachers. Local boards of examiners licensed teachers, but gradually this changed to a County Board certification plan which lessened the danger of a candidate of confronting personal prejudice during the examination. However, the examinations were still not conducted by educators. Moreover, a further regulation (1853) allowed the Principal of the Normal School to grant credentials (*Provincial Certificates*) to successful students, with the result that teachers certificated through the Normal School were excused from the County Board Examinations. By 1860 the County boards could issue three types of certificates (i.e., county certificates) and a teacher's status was conditional on the type of qualification held. The issuance of First class and Second class Provincial certificates led to higher prestige by recognizing degrees of skill and educational levels of teachers who held those particular certificates. The distinction between the County and Provincial certificate was advantageous to the trained teacher. The latter allowed the teacher to acquire better teaching positions, move freely about the province, and did not require re-examination. These certificates freed the teacher from the whims of the County boards and provided the teacher with more respect from parents and students (Althouse, 1929). The former confined a teacher to one geographical area and was not transferable. By prescribing the minimum requirements for all County certificates, the public would be protected from the untrained teachers. Thus standards were already being established for teachers.

While teachers organized for motives other than prestige and power, the fact that they were organized had a definite effect on the status of the occupation. At first they were organized in Teachers' Institutes. Ryerson insisted that the purpose of these was to improve "teachers in service" (Althouse, 1929, p. 32). However, they failed to achieve this goal since teachers had

little say in the development of the Institutes. There were, however, local meetings of teachers to discuss local problems and difficulties, and at times these were attended by the local superintendent and trustees. Eventually, the main participants at these gatherings were experienced teachers, a move “towards an exclusively teachers’ society” (Althouse, 1929, p. 33).

By 1871, the County Boards of Examiners consisted of experts (a county superintendent, a high school headmaster, or a British University graduate or a First Class Common School teacher) within the jurisdiction of the county; more stringent regulations regarding certificates and standards were introduced and expiry dates were established for specific certificates. This led to protests from teachers and trustees but Ryerson responded that “schools existed for the pupils and for not the teachers. If an experienced teacher would not, or could not, qualify under the new regulations, he must lose his certificate, and cease to teach” (Althouse, 1929, p.52). Many left the profession; others stayed in teaching long enough to acquire sufficient funds to move into a more lucrative field.

School enrolments increased to the point that one teacher could not manage the school, resulting in a need for teachers. To resolve it, “two classes of inferior teachers, monitors and assistants” (Althouse, 1929, p. 53) were permitted. For both categories, the candidate wrote examinations in reading, writing, spelling, elementary grammar, geography, and arithmetic and was certificated for one year, with a possible second year extension, by the County Superintendent. The progress of teachers towards a profession suffered a setback because of this classification of teachers, but this was just one of many problems besetting common schools and their teachers. Re-examination for certificates was approved in an effort to ensure that

incompetent teachers would not continue to teach in schools. However, the need for re-examination reflected poorly on the competency of the certifying bodies and called into question the validity of some certificates. Those who held first and second-class certificates were exempt from re-examination. This exemption gave these teachers security and respect, but neither was extended to holders of third class certificates. Minimally, a typical candidate for a third class certificate would have two years high school as an admission requirement (Fleming, Vol. 5, 1971).

Because of these new regulations on qualifications and certification brought in 1871, teacher training at the Normal School was considered a practical means of acquiring a provincial certificate. Training could now be seen as benefit to teachers, since securing a certificate through teacher training rather than by only accumulating experience and passing successive examinations would be both profitable financially and desirable professionally. In addition, the standards for entrance into teacher training were raised. For admission, applicants must have “an academic Second Class Certificate, one session’s experience at a county model school, and one year’s successful teaching experience” (Fleming, Vol. 5, 1971, p. 3).

The Regulations of 1877 reinstated the Model School as a means of upgrading the qualifications of teachers that allowed Third Class non-professional certificated teachers to study and conduct practical work for thirteen weeks and receive a Third Class professional certificate which could be upgraded to a Second and even a First Class certificate with additional study. This Third Class professional certificate allowed the teacher to teach in the county of the Model School for three years. There were limitations with the Model Schools: the course was short and

crammed; entrance standards were very low with the result that applicants might be immature and youngsters might lack in a strong academic background, but it did provide a means of encouraging a steady flow of minimally prepared teachers for the common schools and of upgrading these teachers as their careers progressed.

The Model School, however, had a devastating effect on teaching as a profession. It attracted migrant teachers wishing to secure enough money to move to another position. The influx of transients made teaching less desirable. Since salary was not fixed, bidding for teaching positions could occur allowing a Third Class certificated teacher to underbid a First Class teacher with better credentials. In addition, it flooded the market with young and ill-prepared teachers.

Early on the Department of Education sought to organize teachers for training purposes and failed in that attempt to bring teachers together. However, during the time of increasing the teaching requirements, the idea of an “exclusively teachers society” developed into Teachers’ Associations. These Associations came into being as a result of teachers’ initiatives and did much to nourish a professional spirit of mutual support and solidarity. To support the idea of Teachers’ Associations, the Regulations permitted teachers to be freed from classes for five days a year to meet with other teachers or attend Association meetings. Fleming (1971) describes one of the earliest teachers’ meetings, which occurred in 1861: Egerton Ryerson, in the *Journal of Education*, published a request for teachers to participate in a preliminary meeting that would draw up eligibility for membership and would be called the Teachers’ Association of Canada West, later to become the Ontario Teachers’ Association. At the first meeting, the four main

aims of the association were agreed upon:

1. to secure the general adoption of the most approved methods of instruction
2. to secure the improvement of textbooks in use in the schools of the province
3. to enlarge the views of teachers and stimulate their exertions for the advancement and diffusion of knowledge; and
4. to encourage the interchange of ideas and stimulate friendly intercourse in the profession (Fleming, 1971, p. 2).

Membership was not restricted to certificated or classroom teachers. “Any lady or gentleman engaged in any department of instruction, members of the Council of Public Instruction, members of County Boards ..., superintendents of Schools, editors of educational journals, and ex-teachers” (Althouse, 1929, p. 67) could become members. Among the items discussed at meetings during the 1860s were the significance of teachers and the need for raising professional status. During the 1870s, there were recurring calls for higher qualifications for teachers and supervisors. But, although the Association enhanced the prestige of the profession among teachers and the public, it could not claim to represent teachers in all areas. According to Althouse (1929), “few teachers recognized the importance of their own profession; few realized that the situation demanded deliberate and sustained effort if the teacher was not to slip back to a worse position than before” (p. 80).

By 1880 the tone of the associations had changed. It moved from teachers concerned about “their own calling” (Althouse, 1929, p. 66) to become agencies of the provincial Department of Education for the instruction and improvement of teachers in service. These meetings concentrated on the broader features of teaching as a profession but Department control of the Associations hampered the “class-consciousness” (Althouse, 1929, p. 66) and unconsciously encouraged the development of another organization, which is described next.

In the latter part of the 1870s and the 80s, the Teachers' Associations, or Institutes (as they were called after 1887), continued to play a part in teacher training. Regulation required teacher attendance at its meetings and coercion to participate was not well accepted. The meetings were intended to raise the profession of teaching, but many of those present were resentful and indifferent. The Ontario Teachers' Association, formed shortly after confederation (1867), exercised more influence. It had a wider scope and succeeded in bringing about change; working conditions were discussed at its provincial convention. It regularly criticized the Department's policies and presented suggestions to the Minister (Althouse, 1929). There was a movement to make the organization provincially representative and, in 1892, it united with other teachers and educational groups to become the Ontario Educational Association. Althouse (1929) believed the greatest contribution of OEA was the

development of a sense of unity among the various branches of the teaching profession. That there was great need for esprit de corps is easily seen from a study of salary conditions during the period. Realizing that one great cause of under payment was the too easy access to the profession and the consequent over supply of the lowest grade of teachers, the Provincial body considered protective measures. (p. 100)

Eventually it was decided that the development of a provincial teachers' union was desirable and the Educational Society of Ontario was established in 1886. This Society gave assurance that it would not oppose the College of Preceptors which was proposed by George Dickson of Upper Canada College at the same time, but would, in fact, supplement it (Althouse, 1929).

The aim of the College of Preceptors, suggested at the Ontario Teachers' Association 1886 meeting, was to promote "sound learning and sane education" (Althouse, 1929, p. 101) by safeguarding the public from incompetent teachers and by affording competent teachers "better

social prestige and greater control of the school system” (Althouse, 1929, p. 101). By emulating the Law Society or College of Physicians and Surgeons, the College would supervise admission to teaching and be responsible for professional conduct of its members. In the first year, all practising teachers would become members through payment of a fee. After the first year, membership would be determined by an examination set by the College. Three classes of membership were envisaged: Fellows--teachers who held First Class certificates and the High School Masters; Licentiates--those holding Second Class certificates; and Associates--those holding Third Class certificates. The Fellows and Licentiates would control the College and would elect an Executive Council. The College would control setting and conducting examinations and determine standards. Ultimately, it would control certification, while the Department of Education would maintain and administer the training institutions.

The proposal did not provide sufficient detail for the press or the teacher institutes and received a cautious reception. Several teacher institutes supported the plan in principle, but wanted more details; other institutes rejected it. Teachers, in general, did not give it much attention. At that time, most teachers held Third Class certificates and, although in the majority, they would not exercise power in the College and would be “distinctly inferior class of members in the mooted College” (Althouse, 1929, p. 102).

Althouse concluded that the proposal did not have the support of the teachers because there was not enough information and sufficient detail for teachers to understand its importance and likely impact. Teachers also felt that the plan was not congruent with the powers of the Department of Education and would not receive its support. In addition, they did not see what

they would receive from paying fees to the College and following its regulations. With little support, the proposal for a College of Preceptors lapsed. Some of these same reasons would be echoed in future discussions regarding a self-regulating association.

Teachers often were virtually treated as servants even though the Department of Education, by regulation, had established that “the master of every public school is a public officer” (Althouse, 1929, p. 123) and the courts through litigation had determined that a teacher was a public official. Before 1900, according to Althouse (1929), teaching had acquired only one of the traditional characteristics of a profession, that of being recognized as a valuable public service. Teacher training was far inferior to that given to those who would practise law, medicine, or theology, insofar as any training was required. Althouse (1929) concluded that many factors had led to teaching’s being regarded as a non-profession: the significant number of transitory teachers being employed, periodic oversupply of teachers, low wages, and competition for positions by underbidding by the cheaper lower-certificated teachers.

There was, however, some support for professionalism for teachers. The most influential proponent was the Minister of Education, George William Ross (1883 - 1899), who demanded “for every teacher in the Dominion the standing of one of the learned professions” (Althouse, 1929 p. 124). However, his successor, Richard Harcourt (1899 - 1905) did not agree with Mr. Ross: “When High Schools were established in this Province, their primary object was to prepare pupils for the learned professions, and especially for the University--the [current] course of study has been enlarged to meet the aims of pupils who intend to follow the ordinary pursuits of life. It is in the High Schools where most students who desire to become Public School

teachers receive their non-professional training” (Althouse, 1929, p. 125). Harcourt appears to believe that teaching is a routine occupation, an “ordinary pursuit of life” and not a learned profession. Robert Allen Pyne, Minister of Education from 1905 to 1908, instituted a number of changes, as noted by Althouse (1929), which would improve the standards and qualifications of teachers and, hence, reinforce their claim to professionalism. The Model Schools were discontinued and higher standards were established for entrance into The Normal School. Minimum salaries were fixed and legislative grants to school boards were introduced. All teachers were now required to hold at least a minimum of a Second Class certificate, and the Normal School course had already been increased to ten months now. The curriculum for teacher training was prescribed by the Department. The County Board of Examiners was abolished, and the Department henceforth would grant all certificates. Summer courses for teachers were introduced. All these changes emphasized the importance of education and the professional nature of teachers’ work. It became a common practice for many teachers to devote three weeks of their vacation voluntarily to updating their skills and this practice raised the status of teachers in the eyes of the public.

Althouse concluded that, by 1895, the distinction was being made between teaching as a profession and as a trade: “If a teacher’s main idea is to benefit the children, if he feels he has fitness in interesting them, and to this adds knowledge, ‘teaching’ is a profession. If he only wants to get a living out of it, then it is a trade” (Althouse, 1929, p. 125).

In 1906, a motion to establish an Ontario Teachers' Union concerned with "mutual improvement and protection" (Fleming, Vol. 7, 1971, p. 5) was presented by a committee of the Ontario Teachers' Association to the 1906 convention of the OTA. As presented, the Ontario Teachers' Union would acquire some control over teachers' qualification and would recommend the "compilation of a register of all teachers" (Fleming, 1971, p. 5). Eventually, the part of motion was accepted by the OTU but control over teachers' qualification and teachers' register were not adopted. However, the fact that these two elements of the motion were suggested with some detailed prepared arguments shows that there was a group of teachers who recognized the importance of teachers' qualifications and registration for increasing the perceived status of teaching.

By 1920, various groups of teachers had formed provincial teacher organization. The public secondary school teachers organized as the Ontario Secondary School Teachers' Federation (OSSTF) in 1919. The male public school teachers formed the Ontario Public School Men Teachers' Federation (OPSMTF) in 1920. The women who taught in public elementary schools formed the Federation of Women Teachers' Associations of Ontario (FWTAO) in 1921. The Ontario Teachers' Council (formed in 1935) had representation of the three federations and was generally concerned with the economic conditions for teachers. It also had some contact with the Department of Education. Apart from the financial matters, there was growing concern among the original members of the Ontario Teachers' Council about the unprofessional conduct of some of its members who were teachers: "Teachers with a true professional character were eager to improve the status of teaching, to reduce and control unprofessional conduct, to improve standards of education and to cooperate more actively with other groups who have the

educational welfare of children at heart” (OTF, 1968, pp. 1-2). Therefore, during the years of George Drew’s government, the Ontario Teachers’ Council helped prepare draft legislation which would bring all teachers into one professional organization. The leading teachers in the Roman Catholic separate schools were approached about the possibility of forming an association, but elected instead to create two new associations (Ontario English Catholic Teachers Association in 1944 (OECTA) and l’Association des enseignantes et des enseignants franco-ontariens (AEFO)) drawn on linguistic lines. Fleming (1971) believes that George Drew, both Premier of Ontario and Minister of Education, acted from his own conviction that if there were more productive professional associations, the quality of education would improve. McLeod, cited in Robinson (1971) stated that

Just at this time, an Ontario election resulted in a minority Conservative Government which replaced the former Liberal regime. Council officials then approached the Hon. George Drew, Prime Minister and Minister of Education, to ask for a professional act. He was interested and generally sympathetic. When he heard that such an act did exist in some other provinces he suggested that their acts should be studied by the Department of Education and Teachers’ Council officials. Shortly thereafter, when it was apparent that Mr. Drew was favourable to an Ontario act, he made a firm request of Council officials that *all* teacher be given an opportunity to belong to the professional organization which was being proposed (p. 303).

During the years of negotiations for an act which would recognize a teaching profession in Ontario, “the idea of trying to form a single, comprehensive teachers’ federation (instead of five federated organizations being proposed) was not actively considered” (OTF, 1968, p. 3). The rationale for not uniting into one organization had precedence in Canada where federated arrangements are common. A federal union in which each teacher federation would retain its own identity was more likely to be accepted—a relationship not unlike the federal-provincial

relationship in government. Ruth Baumann³ (1997) states that

they didn't think they were getting a college but they saw the achievement of OTF as being the achievement of professional recognition. ... Because they [teachers] were paid from the public purse, because they were part of an inspected system, ... what they saw as the achievement for teachers of self-governance was what they got. ... They saw that as a huge leap forward from where they had been in terms of professional recognition.

Margaret Wilson⁴ (1996) surmises that, in 1944, for a self-governing council to be established, the three existing affiliates would have had to establish an organization that would be willing to separate itself from the governing body. The affiliates did not want that to occur: rather what they wanted was a governing body consisting of themselves alone. As a result, no organization separate from the affiliates would exist. "The teachers in the public school system were looking for a guaranteed power base and [were] willing to take on discipline *quid pro quo*" (Wilson, 1996). In 1944, there were no discussions regarding the federations' assuming control of the qualifications of teachers and teacher certification.

The 1944 Teaching Profession Act, which passed in three days without opposition, created the Ontario Teachers' Federation (OTF). The Teaching Profession Act outlines the objects of the OTF as follows:

1. to promote and advance the cause of education;
2. to raise the status of the teaching profession;
3. to promote and advance the interests of teachers and to secure conditions which will make possible the best professional service;
4. to arouse an increase public interest in educational affairs; and

³Baumann, Ruth. Ms Baumann is an Executive Assistant with the Ontario Teachers' Federation and has been involved over the years with discussions about creating a College of Teachers.

⁴Wilson, Margaret. Mrs. Wilson was appointed Designate-Registrar for the Ontario College of Teachers by Minister of Education Dave Cooke and had served as President of the Ontario Teacher's Federation. Prior to this new appointment, she was Secretary-Treasurer of the Ontario Teachers' Federation.

5. to co-operate with other teachers' organizations throughout the world having the same or like objects (OTF, 1968, p. 3).

Subject to the approval of the Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council, regulations that could be made by the OTF board included a code of ethics and *inter alia* suspension and expulsion of members. But, it is the Minister of Education who has power to take effective disciplinary action against an OTF member (i.e., revoke a teaching certificate) (Stabler, 1979). OTF did not assume responsibility for the certification of teachers, the development of professional standards, or the accreditation of teacher training institutions. However, over time the OTF has commented on issues--such as teacher supply and demand, university involvement in teacher education, the future of Grade 13--which have implications for, and impinge upon, the traditional prerogatives of a profession. In passing TPA (1944), the province verified teaching as a profession, ninety-eight years after Ryerson, in his Report on a System of Public Instruction for Upper Canada in 1846, had declared that, with formal training, teaching would be a respected profession.

Stabler (1979) commented on the 1950 Ontario Public School Men Teachers' Federation (OPSMTF) brief on recruitment and training of elementary teachers. In the brief, the Federation questioned the concept of self-government and noted that the profession did not have any influence on the teacher training programs or supervision of entry to the profession. The OPSMTF committee objected to the Department of Education's control over the admission to the teaching profession and suggested instead a dual-control system in which each Faculty of Education would assume supervision of the program's academic side while the Department of Education would control the professional training associated with the program. The committee further suggested that entry into the teaching profession would be realized through licensing, similar to that practised in the other professions.

At this time, elementary school teachers were trained in Teachers' Colleges. Admission was from secondary school graduation (either from Grade 12 or Grade 13) into a full-time two year or one year program of study provided by teachers' college masters who had been experienced school teachers. Secondary school teachers first obtained a university baccalaureate degree (of a general nature involving three or four years of full-time study) and then attended a one-year teacher training program in the Ontario College of Education which was affiliated with the University of Toronto.

This OPSMTF brief recommended that all teacher education transferred to the universities and when the studies and training at a university had been completed, the graduate would come before a Licencing Board to pass the final tests and/or be interviewed. The Department of Education would establish the Licencing Board with representatives from the Department, the university faculties of education, the OTF, the public and separate school inspectors' associations, and the school trustees' associations. The board would administer the "issuance, suspension or cancellation of licences" (OPSMTF, 1950, p. 18). This report was not acted on.

The Report of the Royal Commission on Education in Ontario (The Hope Report) (1950) recognized that the Teaching Profession Act, 1944 "is the statutory authority establishing teaching as a profession" (The Hope Report, p. 641). The Hope Report recognized that the association of teachers with each other, during training, and in service, was one of the ways in which a professional sense would be cultivated. In other words, the federations would play the

role of developing teachers' professionalism but would not become sectors of a self-regulating profession.

The Commission affirmed that the Department of Education should take responsibility for training, qualifications, and certification and it recommended that the Minister of Education be responsible for the professional education of pre-service teachers and the granting, cancellation, and suspension of teaching certificates. Its recommendations were based on seven principles, i.e., realization of educational aims, careful selection of candidates, attraction and retention of potential teachers, full professional programmes, continuing professional education, programme accessibility for all students, and success depending on competency. The Commission's report made numerous recommendations on basic teacher training, as well as courses for supplementary teaching certification, professional learning, and an emergency teacher training programme. The Commission was silent on the question of whether teachers should govern their own profession. Silcox (1952) comments critically on the Hope Report.

Before we are to have better teachers, there must be a profound revolution in the whole attitude assumed towards teaching by the generality of the population. The best men and women will hesitate to enter this profession so long as the public tends to look upon teachers as a rather unfortunate group of people who are more or less incapable of doing anything else. Until teaching is rehabilitated in the estimation of the nation and respected as a profession to which one should devote his life without stint and with only a minor, if justifiable, interest in the compensation offered, the best candidates for teaching will not give it a thought and women will consider it largely because it seems perhaps as good a paying proposition as any open to such of them as want a job until they, please God, get married! (p. 21)

In the early 1960s, some secondary teachers hoped that their Federation would be given responsibility for official certification for the teachers of their sector (Fleming, Vol. III, p. 432). They believed that control of certification was essential to full professionalization. Paton (1962)

(cited by Fleming 1971) notes that no jurisdiction in Canada at that time had “the organized teaching profession control, or even have an important voice in determining, the conditions under which candidates entered its ranks, obtained certificates, had their certificates made permanent or lost them.” (Fleming, 1971, Vol. III, p. 432) These powers were exclusively held by government officials. Fleming (1971) cites Paton’s provisional conclusion to the study paper he prepared for the Canadian Conference on Education in 1962:

Every provincial teachers’ association in Canada today has the power by law to enrol as active members all teachers in publicly controlled schools and to subject them to its discipline. It therefore has the organizational potential to accept delegation to it of some or all of the provincial department’s power over the preparation and certificating of teachers. In practice, of course, the actual work of teacher-education would be assumed by the universities ... Certification could, however, be the responsibility of the profession. But the issuing of the license to teach could remain the prerogative of the department of education, thus protecting the state from excessive demands by the profession. If the organized teaching profession had the power of certification, it could justifiably be given the responsibility for maintaining high standards of competence and ethical conduct by its members (Paton, 1961 p. 64).

Paton (1962) identified six essential factors that dignify an occupation as a profession. Among them “he [the teacher] belongs to and participates in the work of an organized group of professional colleagues with the responsibility of ‘attaining and maintaining high standards of admission to, and of competence and ethical behaviour in the practice of his chosen profession’” (Fleming, Vol. III, 1971, p. 433).

Throughout the 1960s and 1970s, OTF held discussions about self-governance as OTF and not as a separate self-governance body. OTF, by now, felt that teachers under OTF should have control of all self-governing aspects of their profession. The OTF saw itself having this responsibility and not establishing a separate entity that would be responsible for teachers’ self-governance. OTF argued that this would not be a conflict of interest, that the Federation’s

affiliates would be responsible for certain functions and OTF, as the umbrella organization, would have other responsibilities. In the 1968 report to the Board of Governors of the OTF, the OTF Commission wrote that “if we are to be professionals in the full sense, we must be responsible for the standards of our own profession: for the preparation of our future colleagues, for the performance of our fellow teachers, for the provision of means of self-improvement, for the regard in which our profession is held by our students and by the public” (OTF, 1968, p. 11).

The section in the report on teacher competence is worth noting:

Since professionalism implies a competence unique to the profession, teacher education will be required to facilitate the development of professional competence in its own exclusive field. This competence may be described as the ability to relate each child to those aspects of the world that man’s mind has shaped and ordered, and to establish this relationship in ways most appropriate to the nurture of each child’s mind.

Such a description implies dual competence: (1) the teacher must be able to move freely among the basic concepts, principles and operations of the ordered world; that is, he must feel at home among the disciplines that constitute man’s culture, especially free and easy, perhaps with one or two of them. (2) The teacher must know and know how to know each child and how he grows. Lacking either of these two competencies, the teacher cannot be described as a professional teacher. Lacking the second competence, the teacher reverts to survival teaching; lacking the first competence, the teacher finds his cupboard bare of the resources the child needs to nourish his mind. (p. 37)

A review of the “obstacles faced by the Federation in the past to the attainment of the classical professional model” (pp. 54-55) concludes that the classic model was not appropriate for OTF; however, an interdisciplinary model permitting greater membership participation would allow OTF to take on a leadership function. This interdisciplinary model for self-governance did not occur.

The OTF was supported by Robert Nixon of the Liberal Party and the Opposition, who, in June 1968 in the Legislature, spoke favourably of according to the teaching profession control of

entrance to teaching, with the Department of Education having some supervision.

I feel sure that if the Minister were to look at the report [Royal Commission on Civil Liberties] authored by Mr. McRuer, he would find ample justification for granting under suitable legislation to a properly established teachers' professional organization the right to grant certification, and to police and patrol and develop professionally and otherwise the attitudes of the teachers of the province. I do not agree with the Minister at all that it is essential that he retain in his own hands the requirement that certificates be authorized by himself" (Ontario Legislative Assembly, Debates, 1968, p. 4052).

In the late 1960s, when he was preparing his multi-volumed study of educational developments, Fleming (1971) concluded that Ontario teachers could not declare full professional status because they did not control admission to teaching. Provincial governments had been reluctant to relinquish this control (Fleming, Vol. III, 1971). Some feared that, since other self-governing bodies (e.g., law, pharmaceutical chemists) had restricted admission in order to create an artificial scarcity and thus force up salaries, teachers may behave in the same manner (Stabler, 1979). Others felt that the possession of self-governing power would enhance the teachers' sense of responsibility (OTF, 1968). Teachers who believed they should control entry to their ranks pointed to comparable privileges held by professions such as medicine and law (OTF, 1968). However, the record of such groups has not been entirely exemplary. Unless subjected to considerable outside pressure, the established professions tend to demonstrate a remarkable capacity to persuade themselves that their own interests are synonymous with those of the community at large (Stabler, 1979).

The next major report of interest to teacher professionalism that actually recommends self-governance for teachers is The Report of the Provincial Committee on Aims and Objectives of Education in the Schools of Ontario 1968 (the Hall-Dennis Report). The Committee

recommended that a revised Teaching Profession Act be enacted to allow teaching to become a self-governing profession, responsible for licensing and disciplining its own members.

Specifically, the report outlines the steps that could be taken to promote the development of teaching as a profession:

- 137. Enact a Teaching Profession Act which will make teaching a self-governing profession with powers to license and to discipline its members, these powers to be exercised through an organization to be known as the College of Teachers of Ontario.
- 138. Consolidate all teachers' organizations into one association to be known ... as the Ontario Teachers' Association.
- 140. Make the validity of the teacher's license contingent upon a demonstrated record of professional development to be reassessed at intervals.
- 142. Recognize for basic certification many and varied teacher education programs.

Under supervisory responsibilities of school boards, the report recommended:

- 203. Exercise responsible judgment and determination in co-operation with the College of Teachers, in removing from teaching those whose practice is consistently detrimental to the educational welfare of children.

The Committee cited Paton (1966): "The professionalization of teaching will not be complete when all classroom teachers, elementary and secondary, have university degrees. The fully qualified teacher must act, and be treated, like a professional person who is capable of exercising initiative and responsibility, and not like a piece-worker who requires, or is given, whether necessary or not, constant supervision and inspection" (Living and Learning, 1968, p. 136). It believed that the Minister should retain certification for an interim period and that licensing of teachers should be transferred to the teaching profession, through a College of Teachers. Since it also recommended that all teacher education occur at the university level, the university would grant the degree or diploma and the College would issue the licence to teach. It argued that most

other professions had greater rights to grant certification to its members than the teaching profession and that it was now opportune for the profession to undertake this responsibility. The Committee further argued that the five affiliates become one federation. Under the recommendations of Living and Learning, the teachers would be required to undertake professional learning activities and the teaching licence would be renewed or withheld based on the record of the teacher. This process would be evaluated at “regular intervals” which the Committee did not define. Given some of the recommendations of the Committee on the requirement of teachers to present their record of professional learning activities, it seems contradictory that it would cite Paton who advocates that the teacher be treated as a professional.

There was no response from the Conservative government on the recommendations of creating a College of Teachers, of allowing the profession the right to issue teaching licences or of uniting the five affiliates into one federation. The government responded to recommendations to change the certification of teachers through enhanced teacher education programs. McDonald⁵ (1997) believes that the Government wanted to implement many of the other recommendations to consider a College of Teachers at that time.

By the early 70s, since the government had taken no action to set up a College of Teachers, the OTF approved several resolutions to establish a Governing Council for Teachers. Its 1972 report argued that the Federation had very little influence regarding entrance requirements or the content of teacher education programs since the universities had assumed responsibility in these domains. To ensure that practising teachers would have a voice in

⁵McDonald, Alice Marie. Sister Alice Marie was a member of the Provincial Committee on Aims and Objectives of Education (1968).

determining entrance to and continuance in the profession, the OTF recommended the creation of a Governing Council for Teachers, a statutory body comprised of the OTF Board of Governors, a Board of Governors Advisory Council, and four standing committees: Teacher Education, Certification and Evaluation, Discipline, and Special Services. The Advisory Council would have nineteen members: nine chosen from among the OTF members and ten combined from government, universities, and nonprofessional and professional groups. Only representatives of the five teacher federation affiliates would sit on the four standing committees which would report to the Advisory Council or the OTF Board of Governors. The Advisory Council would relate to the Board of Governors, undertaking to be the “sole legislative and the ultimate appeal body within the profession itself” (OTF, 1972, p. 4). The OTF would be responsible for the review and approval of teacher education programs and registering graduates’ entry into the profession. However, the primary purpose in establishing a Governing Council would be to make the profession self-governing thereby ensuring “control of entry into the profession and quality of service offered” (p. 2) by teachers.

At a meeting subsequent to the presentation of the report to the Minister, ministry representatives suggested that the OTF add public representatives to its Discipline and Legislation Committee (Stabler, 1979). It appeared that the Minister, Tom Wells, did not want to surrender control over teacher certification, approval of teacher training programs, or the discipline of teachers (The Globe and Mail, 1972, p. 39). Discussions of the proposal apparently were discontinued after this meeting between the Ministry and the OTF.

In 1975, the OSSTF raised the issue of professional recognition. Since the Federation had responsibility to ensure that the conditions required for excellent education existed, it must act immediately to increase its direct influence over teacher training (OSSTF, 1975). Therefore, OSSTF recommended that “teachers be given the right to regulate their profession, to set standards of admission, to certify and discipline members and to develop standards for courses and evaluation for courses. Teachers should continue and intensify their work in upgrading, retaining and professional development” (OSSTF, 1976, Recommendation 20).

In 1978, a more disinterested voice made a request which was motivated by the same need to ensure “excellent education” but which would not hand over responsibility to a federation. In the Final Report Implications of Declining Enrolment for the Schools of Ontario (1978), R.W.B. Jackson recommended that the Ministry of Education discontinue its long-standing policy of awarding permanent certificates to teachers, favouring instead term certificates valid for five years and renewable on evidence of serious professional development activity through achievement of additional academic and professional qualifications and proof of satisfactory and improving performance in the educator’s current position. An equivalent of a six-week course during the preceding period would be required. In April 1979, the OTF responded to Jackson’s report, specifically commenting on and strongly opposing the concept of term certificates.

Jackson’s report raised a number of issues which led to questions about the “status of the teaching profession and the rights and responsibilities that should devolve upon it. ... The Government believes that the profession has reached a stage of maturity comparable to that of

other established professions and that the public interest can therefore be safeguarded through means other than those now in effect” (Ministry of Education, 1980, p. 40). Two key proposals were outlined in the 1980 publication of Issues and Directions, the response of the Ministry of Education to the Jackson report (The Final Report of the Commission on declining School Enrolments in Ontario):

4.3.1 It is proposed that the Ministry of Education enter into discussions with the OTF to plan the creation of a professional association or “college of teachers”, which will exercise, on behalf of the public interest, rights of admission, certification, discipline, professional development and maintenance of the professional records of teachers.

4.3.2 the Ministry of Education proposed to conduct a formal review of The Teaching Profession Act, 1944 with particular reference to the changes that should be made subsequent to the creation of a “college of teachers”. (p. 40)

Various groups in Ontario’s educational establishment responded to the college of teachers concept. The Association of Large School Boards in Ontario (ALSBO) (1981) did not support this concept. The Association felt that permitting self-regulation by the profession would have serious implications and was concerned about management rights and responsibilities of school boards. The Ontario Separate School Trustees Association (OSSTA) (1981), in its submission to the Minister of Education, felt that the proposal for a distinct college of teachers was premature.

The OTF presented a proposal with three models for self-government, with the OTF remaining as the umbrella group for the five affiliates. In each model, the OTF Board of Governors, consisting of 50 representatives of the five affiliates would form the basis of the governing council. Five members would be appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council and five would be appointed by other groups licenced by the Federation (OTF, 1982). The Board

of Governors would have responsibility for registration, standards, complaints, discipline, and professional education.

In 1980, legislation, introduced by Bette Stephenson⁶, then Minister of Education, was designed to establish a self-regulatory professional organization. Holmes (1980) quoted Stephenson: “I have grave concern that the public perception of the teaching profession has suffered very dramatically in the last twenty years and the establishment and effective function of a college could help that (p. 1) ... The Governing Council of the ‘college’ would play an important role [determine the qualifications that are necessary for a teacher] but, the structure of that Governing Council of the professional group should have significant active public representation of those who have no direct relationship with the teaching profession as well” (p. 2). This legislation, however, would also replace the Ontario Teachers’ Federation with the new entity (Thomson, 1996): “One of the objects of that particular college that was suggested was to do away with the teachers’ federation” (Hansard, April 17, 1996). Until this point, the OTF and its affiliate federations had supported the proposal, but once it had been coupled with the abolition of the Federation, the OTF then found the concept unacceptable. They strongly disputed the legislation and lobbied for withdrawal.

The OTF (1983) had developed eight principles that it would adhere to in discussion with the Minister: these dealt with licensing as the responsibility of the OTF, compulsory membership in the OTF, continuation of bargaining rights, automatic licensing of all present the OTF members, the OTF control over pre-service and in-service courses at the faculties of education,

⁶Stephenson, Bette. Dr. Stephenson was Minister of Education from 1978 to 1985 in the Progressive Conservative Government of William Davis.

full funding from the Ministry for the licensing process, continuation of evaluation statements, and services in both English and French. Collective bargaining and all issues related to teacher welfare would remain with the affiliate federations. The Federation was suspicious since it was unclear what the Ministry had in mind. Several of the principles noted above were stumbling blocks in the discussions (London Free Press, June 1 1983 p. A1). The OTF (1983) suspended its discussions with the Ministry of Education: “The disagreement leading to the suspension arises from the Ministry taking the firm position that under its proposal, (a) the structure for self-government would be outside of and independent of the Ontario Teachers’ Federation, and (b) membership in a ‘College’ would be statutory but membership in the Federation would not be statutory” (p. 2).

Stephenson (1996) recognized that the McRuer Report must be understood by all who were involved in discussions regarding a College of Teachers. It outlined, as she understood it, that functions of trade unions were different than functions of professional associations. The prime responsibility of a professional association is the protection of the public.

Professional associations could become trade unions but then they had to give up responsibility of that part which related to the protection of the public and law and medicine had already done that. ... During the preceding four to five years, [I] heard from teachers that they considered themselves to be a profession, that they didn’t think they were a trade union. ... If they really wanted to be considered a profession they [the federations] had to do something which separated the professional role of the teachers from the protection of welfare of the members of the professional which the trade unions did and the professional role would guarantee the welfare of the public.

We thought the arguments were rational, sensible and supported ... and there was no doubt that I had the support of the Premier at the time to introduce it. ... I called for a meeting with OTF itself, [to discuss] the college of teachers.

According to Stephenson (1996), the OTF requested and received a list of the provisions “one of which was that membership in the college of teachers would be mandatory [and] ... membership in the trade union would not be mandatory”. The OTF was not prepared to discuss that federation membership would not be mandatory. The OTF believed in the combination of a self-governing body and the existing Federation and that the “Ontario Teachers Federation would in fact be responsible for and make up the board for the College of Teachers and govern the College of Teachers” (Stephenson, 1996). At the beginning of the meeting it was determined that a discussion on the college of teachers was on the agenda. The Federation was not prepared to discuss this topic and left the meeting.

The OTF lobbied for withdrawal of the pending legislation. When Stephenson was asked for an explanation for the withdrawal of the legislation, she was told by the Premier, William Davis, that “there wasn’t a lot of use of bringing up any thing if they [OTF] weren’t going to talk about it. So just let it lie for a while and then reintroduce it.” Stephenson (1996) really believed that she “would have an opportunity to bring the college of teachers in again”.

In explaining the background leading to the legislation on a college of teachers, she describes it as beginning with “small group discussion--some antagonistic and some weren’t.” Even with her own staff, Stephenson (1996) stated that it took

several months for me persuade the staff of the Ministry that indeed even pursuing the idea of the college of teachers was the right thing to do because they weren’t ready to do it in the beginning either. But they became converts, they really did. When they really began to think about what could happen and what we could do to improve the status of the entire education structure and protect the public, they really came on side. ... It just didn’t happen overnight.

Stephenson believed that that was no idea of off-loading of teacher certification and discipline

from the government at the beginning:

The concept was that there would be, in fact, in place, a mechanism which could ensure that the profession was indeed a profession. We had closed most of the teachers' colleges by the time we introduced the subject to the teaching profession, because that was a part of that march towards greater professionalization of teachers. ... It was something I felt the profession should understand was in their best interests if they wanted to be a profession.

She views the code of ethics as the real protection for the public because it can provide for accountability. In hindsight, Stephenson believes "we should have just simply said it is our responsibility to assist the teachers themselves to do this".

Baumann (1996) supported Stephenson's comments about the response of the OTF regarding a free standing college as opposed to the OTF having responsibility for this. Stephenson relied heavily on the McRuer Report for her stand. "The cleavage point" (Baumann, 1996) occurred with Stephenson's statement the organizations could not conduct both protection of the membership and protection of the public at the same time. The OSSTF "characterized Bette's proposal as one that would have left the federation out of any professional activity and left only with the protective union side. Therefore [that] was unacceptable because we thought the blend was important and the teachers thought the blend was important because they didn't want their federations to become only unions and some other group to be responsible only for the professional side. Once Davis got Bette to pull that off the table," (Baumann, 1996) the teachers realized that they were successful in convincing the government to discontinue discussions regarding this model of self-governance.

Why was there such vocal discussion about a college of teachers at that time? Bette Stephenson wanted a college of teachers based on the examination of self-regulating bodies that

occurred in the late 1960s (McRuer Report which outlined some of the difficulties in self-regulation). When the Federation presented its proposals to Tom Wells and Bette Stephenson for what it wanted as a self-governing association, it “presented a model with a modified OTF but not significantly modified OTF [to] take on teacher regulation” (Wilson, 1996). The Federation was not sufficiently attentive to McRuer Report and basically ignored the debate: “it [the Federation as a self-regulating body] could be done but it would require significant change in OTF. ... It wanted to take on the regulation which was presented where [the] senior executive of [the affiliate] federations would control the regulation because that was the OTF executive’ (Wilson, 1996). Wilson concluded that that would not be accepted “not on the basis that it was the unions, but on the public policy basis” (Wilson, 1996).

Therefore, when Update ‘84, the document that provide the results of initiatives identified in Issues and Directions (1980), was released, no one was surprised. The update explains why the government reversed its decision:

The government’s view is that the primary responsibility for continued professional development and adaptation to changing requirements must be assumed to a great degree by the teaching profession itself. As suggested in Issues and Directions, the teaching profession in Ontario has reached a stage of development comparable to that of other established professions, and the time has therefore come for the creation of a college of teachers.

To this end a ministries’ work group was established to review background data on professional associations, assemble an overview of client positions, analyse the responses of teachers’ federations and their affiliates, develop a model and initiate a formal review of the Teaching Profession Act, 1944, with particular reference to the changes that should be made following the creations of a college of teachers.

A number of issues having some relationship to the proposal have yet to be discussed with the Ontario Teachers’ Federation and its affiliates, such as professional discipline, the maintenance of standards, and accountability. At present there remain a number of unresolved differences between the federations and the ministry’s positions on this initiative. The Premier has indicated in the

Legislature and in letters to the federations that the government would not wish to proceed with the establishment of a college without their agreement. The OTF has not given any indication that new discussions with the government should be initiated. (pp. 36-37)

In the 1986 Report to the Minister of Education on the Issue of Certification and Discipline in the Teaching Profession in the Province of Ontario, Torrie (1986) outlines three options for the Minister to consider with the view of establishing the Society of Ontario Teachers. In option 1, the Certification Review Advisory Committee would take on responsibility for certification, applications reinstatement, developing a complaints process, and setting competency standards. This option leaves control in the hands of the Minister and does not allow for self-governance. Option 2 allows for certification and discipline to be regulated by the Ontario Teachers' Federation. The concern with this option stems from the fact that the Federation's mandate is, in part, to act on behalf of the membership. Acting on behalf of the membership could be seen as a conflict since the Federation would now be responsible for discipline, procedures, and certification. The third option outlines the establishment of the Society of Ontario Teachers.

The Society of Ontario Teachers would be "freestanding" (p. 30) and accept responsibility for teacher certification, discipline, professional training programs, code of ethics, and designation of committees as required. Membership on the governing council would consist of a minimum of three non-teachers and two elected school board trustees, but the recommendations do not indicate the number of teachers to be on the governing council. The discipline system used would be modelled on that of the Institute of Chartered Accountants. The Minister of Education would appoint a lay observer whose duty would be "to investigate by, or

on behalf of members of the public concerning the way in which complaints of a teacher are treated by the Society” (p. 33). This report was to have gone to the Ontario Teachers’ Federation for discussion but was never sent. It does show that discussions were continuing at the Ministry level regarding the college of teachers idea.

The Teacher Education Review Steering Committee (1988) recommended in its final report that a provincial advisory council be established. The Minister of Education followed that recommendation and initiated the Teacher Education Council, Ontario (TECO). This council would advise the Minister on various issues related to teacher training. These included recruitment and hiring practices, faculty renewal, in-service, and programs. One of the recommendations that this Council brought forward, in its unreleased report (Thomson, 1995), was that it (TECO) should be succeeded by an organization with the same roles as TECO but with the authority to ensure that its mandate is met. Thomson (1995) describes this new body as “a College of Teachers model” (p. 3).

The next major study of education in Ontario was the Royal Commission on Learning, set up by the New Democratic Government in 1993. Its findings were released in 1995 in a five volume report, For the Love of Learning. The commissioners devoted Volume 3 to educators, and in it, they discuss professional issues, teacher education, performance evaluation, and leadership. They argue that given the complexity of Ontario’s education in the province, it is in “the best professional interests of educators” (p. 9), to shift of governance issues to a self-governing body. They see that this gives “teaching full professional status” (p. 9) and is a logical step in view of educational trends. The Royal Commission on Learning report cites the various

pieces of legislation (e.g., The Education Act and the Teaching Profession Act) that regulate admission, certification, and practice for teaching in Ontario. Currently, governance is exercised by the universities (through control of teacher education) and the Minister of Education and Training (through control of the certification process). They argue that “as long as these crucial areas of governance in teaching remain outside the control of teachers, the profession of teaching will remain in a state of limited development” (Vol. 3, 1994d, p. 9).

In proposing a College of Teachers as a professional body of teachers at arm’s length from the federation, the commission seeks to complete the development of teaching as a mature self-governing profession. We believe that practitioners in the profession are most qualified to establish what is required for a teacher to function effectively and decided which programs constitute appropriate professional preparation and in-service. Finally we believe that teachers themselves, in partnership with the broader community, should define professional conduct and practice. In order to set up the college, the 1944 Teaching Profession Act and the Education Act would have to be amended to allow establishment of an Ontario College of Teachers. (Vol. 3, 1994d, pp. 10-11)

As with the other volumes of the report, this volume also contains a variety of recommendations, among them Recommendation 58, which states:

We recommend that a professional self-regulatory body for teaching, the Ontario College of Teachers, be established, with the powers, duties, and membership of the College set out in legislation. The College should be responsible for determining professional standards, certification, and accreditation of teacher education programs. Professional educators should form a majority of the membership of the College, with substantial representation of non-educators from the community at large. (Vol. 3, 1994d, p. 11)

Thomson (1996), in her analysis of the work of the Commission, suggests that “much of the rationale for this recommendation comes back to what teachers themselves said in their briefs to the RCOL about teacher education, professional development, support for beginning teachers and ongoing opportunities for mature teachers” (p. 4).

For the Love of Learning further recommends “mandatory professional development for all educators in the publicly funded school system, with continuing certification every five years, dependent on both satisfactory performance and participation in professional development recognized by the College of Teachers” (Vol. 3, 1994d, p. 33). Coulter (1996), in her analysis of the Report of the Royal Commission, argues that while outwardly, teachers will be granted professional status when the OCT is established, they are in fact being more accountable with initial testing and re-certification every five years and will not enjoy the autonomy that other professions are able to exercise since teachers will not have control curriculum, assessment, and reporting. She warns that “teachers, in grasping at the Holy Grail of professional status, may well find themselves co-opted into a control process which actually decreases teacher autonomy, when, and if, they accept membership in the College of Teachers” (p. 123).

The Federation, while wanting the role of self-governance for many years, was not completely supported by all of its members. Over its history, the Federation had assumed duties of a college of teachers. Its main responsibility in that area is that of its Relations and Discipline Committee. Lalonde⁷ (1997) states that, in 1992, “OTF proposed a whole series of amendments to regulation to allow for public involvement in the processes in what we would call today a college of teachers and for four years those amendments sat over ... at the Ministry and we never got a response back”. Had these amendments to the TPA been accepted, there would have seen more public participation. Baumann (1997) acknowledged that “there was work being done more along the lines of fine tuning, and making the existing R and D [Relations and Discipline] process look more like some of the others than in actually getting the power, for instance, to pull

⁷Lalonde, Pierre. M. Lalonde is an Executive Assistant with the Ontario Teachers’ Federation and was actively involved with the discussions and meetings regarding the development of a College of Teachers.

certificates ... that [the] committee ... had external representation on it". She also realized the cost involved in the process of establishing a College of Teachers: "No one would have wanted to take on what the Ministry was doing at their expense."

Summary

Over the last two centuries teaching has evolved from the one-room school with limited training to an all-graduate specialty. Ryerson envisioned a vocation in the sense of being called to the task at hand. Over time, the requirements to become a teacher increased from thirteen weeks to twenty-six weeks to one year (or a multi-year program) with prospective teachers choosing areas of specialization for study. Academic and professional knowledge have increased resulting in a range of research reports and curricula available for study resulting in increased professional learning. Greater accountability also resulted with the expansion of teacher training because better teacher training was demanded by the teachers and the public.

Establishing a College of Teachers was an arduous task. There were numerous stumbling blocks--teachers, government, federations, federation leaders, apathy, media reports, socioeconomic conditions, civil servants, Ministers of Education--that prevented a College from being established. There were also numerous supports for a College of Teachers--teachers, government, federations, federation leaders, zeal, media reports, socioeconomic conditions, civil servants, Ministers of Education--that had they all been synchronized, a College would have been established.

CHAPTER FIVE
THE ONTARIO COLLEGE OF TEACHERS
IMPLEMENTATION COMMITTEE AND BILL 31

The teacher education reform announcements made in February 1995 contained many facets, one of which was that an Ontario College of Teachers would be established. In developing a new organization that would operate at arm's length from the government, a process to ensure appropriate legislation and other constraints would have to be addressed. This chapter will trace the activities that occurred to create and to implement the College of Teachers and review the legislation (Bill 31 An Act to establish the Ontario College of Teachers and to make related amendment to certain statutes) up to and including the proclamation of the Bill and Royal Assent being given.

Beginning in the mid-1960s, with the growth of large urban areas and the changing of attitudes about power sharing, some ministries /departments relinquished a large measure of control to local school authorities for core functions such as curriculum development and assessment. Since the 1980s, in some jurisdictions, and certainly during the 1990s, many ministries have vigorously moved to recentralize, driven by cost consideration and issues of quality control and accountability (Council of Ministers of Education, Canada, 1996a) and have off-loaded aspects that were not considered core functions.

On February 13, 1995, Dave Cooke, as Minister of Education and Training, announced that the government was “taking immediate action on many of the recommendations of the Royal Commission on Learning” (Cooke, 1995a, p. 1). He outlined the reform of teacher education which would include standards of practice for all educators; the introduction of two-year teacher education programs, including an admission examination for graduates to become certified in Ontario; the formation of the Ontario College of Teachers; development of provincial professional development framework for all educators; mandatory recertification of educators every five years; accreditation of teacher education programs; and a complaints process for students and parents (Ministry of Education and Training, 1995a). It was his belief that this new professional organization for teachers would “strengthen the profession, while making it more accountable to the public” (Cooke, 1995a, p. 2). “The college will give teachers more say in defining and controlling professional conduct and practice. In the process, it will increase public confidence in teachers” (Cooke, 1995a, p. 3).

The College would apply to anyone holding an Ontario Teaching Certificate and wishing to maintain the credentials to teach in a publicly-funded school in Ontario. Its governing body would include teachers in both English-language and French-language schools, parents, students, and representatives of faculties of education, school boards, the Ministry, and the private sector. The tasks that Minister Dave Cooke identified for the OCT to undertake include developing standards of practice applicable to all educators certificated to teach in the province, establishing provincial priorities for professional development, and acting on complaints about the profession from members of the public. In addition, the government was “introducing new measures for

certification and recertification” (Cooke, 1995a, p. 5). Teachers reentering teaching and those who received their training outside Ontario would also be governed by these requirements.

At the same time, the Minister announced the creation of an implementation committee to advise him on the terms of reference for the College and necessary legislation required (Ministry of Education and Training, 1995b). A committee of twelve members representing education, business, public sector, post-secondary education, and unions was appointed with Frank Clifford as chair and Margaret Wilson, then Secretary-Treasurer of the Ontario Teachers’ Federation as the first registrar of the College of Teachers. Specifically, the mandate of the committee was to “provide recommendations on the terms of reference for an Ontario College of Teachers including mission, ... legislative and regulatory framework, ... structure and relationships, ... membership, ... functional responsibilities, ... authority, ... accountability, ... process, ... human resources (staffing) requirements, ... funding, ... and ancillary matters” (Cooke, 1995a, pp. 2-3).

In addition, Cooke emphasized that the college would adopt a different role from that of the existing Teachers’ Federation and its five affiliates. He concluded that the education system needs both types of organizations.

In the early stages, four of the five federation affiliate presidents said that having a College was a good idea (Cooke, 1995c). However, not all teachers agreed. Response to Cooke’s announcement from some teachers was quick and opposed. An article in the London Free Press (February 14, 1995) quoted Mike Moffatt, OPSTF local president, that while liking “the idea as it gives teachers professional status”, he was concerned about members of the public

sitting on the committee which would discipline teachers. Brian Barrett, OECTA local president, responded to recertification: “That [recertification] amounts to keeping experienced teachers on ‘permanent probation’ and their jobs vulnerable”. His was not the only voice concerned with mandatory recertification every five years. Protests came with such a furor that the Minister sent a special communique to the “Secondary School Teachers of Ontario” eleven days after his announcement. It informed teachers that

terms and specifics related to such issues as the meaning of recertification, or more properly, ongoing professional development, will be decided in due time by the college. It is not the government’s intention to pre-empt any of the future decisions of the College. Nor is it the governments’s intention to re-examine or re-test teachers once certified. However it is anticipated there will be an expectation, as defined by the College, for mandatory ongoing professional growth on the part of all teachers. (Cooke, 1995b, p. 1)

In addition, the questions and answers about teacher education reform indicated that the College of Teachers would not be involved in teacher or school inspection, would not provide professional development and would not provide certification ratings for salary purposes. The government appeared to withdraw its earlier statement by referring to recertification as “continuing education or life long learning for teachers” (p. 5) and not the requirement to pass an examination for recertification.

Initially, the College of Teachers concept was supported by four of the five affiliates, with the OSSTF in opposition (Cooke 1995). In The Reporter, McKeown (1995) of the OECTA indicates that the affiliate supports the idea of a college in principle, with the proviso that it is composed of a large majority of teachers: “We told the College’s Implementation Committee that recertification cannot be part of the package, that separate school teachers must have distinct representation, and the costs must be kept to a minimum ... We can see the respect and the

authority over their profession the Scottish teachers enjoy. They have authority over teacher training and control over who can teach” (p. 15). The first response from the OPSTF (Ferland, 1996) was that it was not a bad idea but subsequently it became concerned about recertification, professional development by the College of Teachers, funding costs, and powers of the College’s investigation committee.

The time lapse from the official announcement of the creation of an Ontario College of Teachers (February 13, 1995) to Royal Assent of Bill 31 (July 5, 1996) was approximately sixteen months, and during that time information from a number of sources was available for teachers to learn about the proposed OCT model. In the teacher survey conducted in May 1996, the teachers were asked how they learned about the proposed College of Teachers.

The most common sources of initial information concerning the Ontario College of Teachers proposal were the news media and the teachers’ federations, reaching about three-quarters of the sample. Staffroom discussions and announcements from the Ministers of Education and Training were sources of information for approximately half of the respondents. “Professionally Speaking,” the newsletter from the OCT Implementation Committee also reached a significant proportion. Other sources reached less than 20% of the sample; no one reported hearing of the proposal in departmental or grade meetings.

Table 1
How Respondents Received Information about Ontario College of Teachers

	# of cases	% of cases
News Media	131	74.9
Teachers' Federation	129	73.7
Staffroom Discussions	90	51.4
John Snobelen	84	48.0
Dave Cooke	76	43.4
"Professionally Speaking"	56	32.0
Staff Meeting Presentation	30	17.1
Board Office Information	27	15.4
"Privilege of Professionalism"	20	11.4
ENO/REO	7	4.0
Dept/Grade Meeting	0	0.0
Total Respondents	179	

Communication from the College of Teachers is vital to keep the profession informed about what is taking place. Sutherland (1996) has stated that ensuring open communication lines within the profession is one of the most important undertakings of a professional college. From the data provided, teachers use the media and the federations as the two main providers of information. This highlights the importance that the teachers place on receiving information from one source that is readily available (i.e., on a daily basis) in the various forms of media and from another source--federation--that traditionally has provided them with much information through an extensive network. Both the General Teaching Council for Scotland and the British Columbia College of Teachers have established Communications Committees to develop plans for better communication to teachers. In both instances, the Communications Committees were established after the creation of the respective colleges and had not been suggested or recommended at their creation.

From the announcement creating the College of Teachers to introduction of Bill 31, much activity occurred. Over an eight month period, the OCT Implementation Committee met several times. Over 70 different groups--representing provincial organizations, local and regional organizations, post secondary institutions, self-regulated professional bodies, and government representatives--made presentations to or met with the College of Teachers Implementation Committee. Issues such as certification programs--including pre-service teacher preparation, in-service professional development/professional competence programs, leadership and curriculum--were discussed and concerns about the mandates given to the college--including membership, governance, on-going professional development, discipline, profession versus union, registry, and costs and benefits-- were expressed.

The report was presented on October 1, 1995 (Hansard April 17, 1996). Frank Clifford outlined the four basic positions taken by the committee in its deliberations:

- 1) the College of Teachers would be self-regulatory and not an agency of the government;
- 2) membership in the College of Teachers would be mandatory for any teaching position which required an Ontario teacher's certificate;
- 3) college activities would primarily focus on the certificate or the licence to teach;
- 4) the college's activities apply to all those who hold membership.

The Governing Council would consist of 31 members, of which 17 represent certificated teachers and 14 represent the public. According to Mr. Clifford (1996), the number for public representation was "based strictly on the committee's debates and decisions about public accountability" (Hansard, April 17, 1996, p. 1015-2). This is in keeping with the professional organizations (outlined in Schedule 1, p. 18), directed by the Regulated Health Professions Act (1991), each of which has almost half of its governing council as public representatives. There

are fewer public representatives on other professional organizations, such as the Association of Architects (12.5%), College of Certified Social Workers (22%), Law Society of Upper Canada (9%), or none, as with Institute of Management Consultants (OCT, 1997). However, these listed have been in existence for a longer period of time and have not had a regulation directing a change in public membership on their partyicular governing council.

Affecting a teacher's professional life, aside from the functions of a College of Teachers (i.e., certification and registration), are the areas of professional learning, standards of practice, and accountability. These have been addressed in The Privilege of Professionalism report as recommendations and translated into legislation in Bill 31. Bill 31 was written by Legislative Counsel at Queen's Park and the Ministry of Education and Training with reaction given by Richard Lewko and Margaret Wilson of the College of Teachers Implementation Committee. It is based on the Regulated Health Professions Act (1991) to a great extent and on the Professional Engineers Act (Brown, 1997). From a practical point of view, using this existing legislation is wise since it provides not only the framework for a self-governing body but can be cited to those who complain about Bill 31 that many of the items contained herein are already in place for other self-governing bodies, such as nurses, pharmacists, dentists, doctors, and engineers, who already have professional status. It should be considered, however, that what is appropriate for one self-governing body may not necessarily be appropriate for another.

As outlined in The Privilege of Professionalism report, the broad mandate for the College is "to shape the future of professional education" (p. 6). The document discusses accountability, standards, and professional learning. Accountability to the profession and to the public is

expressed in two key areas: 1) in giving to the College the authority to establish standards, and 2) in ensuring that mandatory professional learning is the norm for all members.

During the time that the Implementation Committee was working on its report, the OTF Board of Governors directed its President, Ronald Robert, and Pierre Lalonde to meet with the Minister to discuss the idea of the OTF taking on the role of a college of teachers. At the meeting, the Minister indicated his interest in studying the OTF proposal. However, a detailed proposal had not been worked out by the OTF regarding the various functions. Several days after that meeting, the President of the OTF and Mr. Lalonde were called to the Minister's Office and informed that the OTF proposal was not going to be considered. The Privilege of Professionalism had been released and, although many of the Federation members were not happy with the report, it would move ahead and be used as a resource for the legislation that would follow. Mssrs Lalonde and Robert were of the opinion that the Minister had been told that not to proceed with the OTF proposal, "that they [the Ministry] were going to go ahead with the establishment of a college" (Lalonde, 1997, January 21).

Teacher protests against the idea of establishing a College of Teachers were held throughout the province in the fall of 1995. By way of example, London teachers demonstrated at the office of Dianne Cunningham, MPP for London North, to declare their opposition to provincial government plans to create the College of Teachers (London Free Press, Nov. 15, 1995 p. B1).

H. Gordon McIntyre (1996)⁸ of the General Teaching Council for Scotland, noted that “one of the difficulties [is that] for the council to get powers means that someone else has to give them up.” The giving up of power is an action that many agencies would resist. For the Ontario College of Teachers to exist means that other groups, most notably the Ministry of Education and Training and the Ontario Teachers’ Federation, would relinquish some of the powers that they have. The Ministry would cease “regulating teachers qualifications, granting teaching credentials to graduates of Ontario pre-service programs, issue duplicate certificates and other records upon request, granting teaching credentials to those with out-of-province qualifications who meet Ontario standards, and maintaining a register” (p. 7). The Ontario Teachers’ Federation would give up the disciplinary process that it has regulated through its Relations and Discipline Committee since 1944.

In his statement to Legislature on November 21, 1995, John Snobelen, Minister of Education, indicated that the government would be introducing Bill 31, An Act to establish the Ontario College of Teachers and to make related amendments to certain statutes to create such a college. He stated

the concept of an independent, self-funding [emphasis in original] and professional college of teachers for both English and French-language teachers was one of the fundamental recommendations of the Hall-Dennis report two decades earlier and the Royal Commission on Learning earlier this year. And the former government indicated its recognition of the importance of the college by setting up the Ontario College of Teachers Implementation Committee. (p. 2)

Bill 31 outlined the functions (11 objects) of the College:

1. to regulate the profession of teaching and to govern its members;
2. to develop, establish and maintain qualifications for membership in the College;

⁸McIntyre, H. Gordon. Mr. McIntyre is the Depute Registrar (Administration) of the General Teaching Council of Scotland.

3. to accredit professional teacher education programs offered by post-secondary educational institutions;
4. to accredit ongoing education programs for teachers offered by post-secondary educational institutions and other bodies;
5. to issue, renew, amend, suspend, cancel, revoke and reinstate certificates of registration and qualifications;
6. to provide for the ongoing education of members of the College;
7. to establish and enforce professional standards and ethical standards applicable to members of the College;
8. to receive and investigate complaints against members of the College and to discipline members;
9. to develop, provide and accredit educational programs leading to certificates of qualification additional to the certificate required for membership, including but not limited to certificates of qualification as a supervisory officer, and to issue, renew, amend, suspend, cancel, revoke and reinstate such additional certificates;
10. to promote the profession of teaching and communicate with the public on behalf of the members of the College; and
11. to perform such additional functions as are prescribed by the regulations.
(Bill 31, Sec 3(1))

The duty ascribed to the College, “to serve and protect the public,” is in keeping with the McRuer Report (1968), which states that “the granting of self-government is a delegation of legislative and judicial functions and can only be justified as a safeguard to the public interest” (Riera *et al.*, 1976 p. 140). The bill then describes the Governing Council, the process of registration and the Registration Appeals Committee, the duties and responsibilities of the Investigations and Discipline Committees, the establishment of regulations by the Lieutenant Governor in Council and by-laws by the Governing Council, and a “catch-all” section titled Miscellaneous. Since there would be a gap in time from the point when Royal Assent was received to the time of the College’s Governing Council being put in place, transitional provisions were included in the pending legislation. Various sections of the Education Act, the School Boards and Teachers Collective Negotiations Act, the Provincial School Negotiations Act, and the Teaching Profession Act that would be affected by the Ontario College of Teachers

Act were included also in Bill 31. While it attempted to be an all-inclusive bill and seemed to support the traits of a self-governing body, it caused great concern and anxiety among the teachers' federations.

Accountability to the profession and to the public would be ensured in a variety of ways and the report of the Implementation Committee addressed this. The Privilege of Professionalism report outlined that the Governing Council would have a significant number of public representatives (45% of the Governing Council) who would be appointed by the Lieutenant Governor in Council every three years. Public representation would also occur on the three statutory committees, five standing and three special committees. This public representation should include the following: postsecondary institutions (3), parents nominated by the Ontario Parent Council (3), trustees (3), faculty of education student representative (1), a member of the aboriginal community (1), a member of organized labour (1), a person of a visible minority (1), and a business person (1). Bill 31, by contrast, does not address which groups would be included to represent the public, but outlines that there will be a 31-member Governing Council, with 17 elected members and 14 appointed members.

The Implementation Committee recommended that "the meetings of the Governing Council should be open to the membership and to the public" (p. 16) and that it would report annually to both its members and the Legislature through the Minister of Education and Training. Bill 31 outlines that the meetings would be open and that a report for the Legislature would be developed. It does not explicitly direct reporting to members but states that "reasonable notice shall be given to the members of the College" concerning the Council meetings. Therefore, it

may be construed that, since notification of meetings is being given to members, some information about the College is also being given to members.

The Committee contends that “public access to information on whether or not a teacher is registered with the College will improve the profession’s accountability with the community” (p. 10). Bill 31 states that any person can examine the register and designates this as a “right.” By exercising this right, anyone examining the register will find a member’s name, the type of certification held, plus additional qualification, any terms, conditions, and limitations charged to the certificate, notice of revoking, cancelling or suspending certification and registration, any additional information that a committee may require and information that the by-laws determine is to be included. The last two items leave the register wide open to include whatever a committee or a by-law determine and does not afford a measure of privacy to the member unless controlled by a by-law.

To further public accountability, Bill 31 states the Minister may require certain activities of the Council (i.e., make, amend, or revoke a regulation or by-law, or report on activities, etc). If the Council fails to comply, the Lieutenant Governor in Council may, by order, carry out the activity. While this may seem like a sweeping power, the Lieutenant Governor in Council does not have authority to do anything than the Council has the power to do. This section is identical to the Regulated Health Professions Act (1991).

While The Privilege of Professionalism recommends eleven committees, Bill 31 indicates that there will be four committees with others established as the Council considers necessary.

The Privilege of Professionalism outlines that the Executive, Investigation, and Discipline Committees constitute the statutory committees with the standing committees as Registration Appeals, Finance, Accreditation, Standards of Practice and Education, and Communications, and the special committees are Elections, Nominations, and Quality Assurance. Bill 31 outlines that the Council shall establish the Executive, Investigation, Discipline, and Registration Appeals Committees. By way of comparison, the Regulated Health Professions (Code) mandates seven committees, including Complaints, Fitness to Practise, Quality Assurance, and Patient Relations Committees. At the time of the development of Bill 31, it was felt that four statutory committees would be sufficient to regulate the College of Teachers and that other issues could be dealt with through regulations and by-laws.

Two areas that directly affect classroom teachers on an on-going basis are addressed by the Implementation Committee. Professional learning is not directly defined by the Implementation Committee, but it “strongly believes that career-long professional learning is the key to creating a supportive environment where both teachers and their students can benefit” (p. 7). Even though teachers have included professional learning in their educational activities in their careers, there has been no main locus that would support a professional learning framework. The purpose of a professional learning framework, as described by the Implementation Committee, is “to provide a context of priority and coherence within which teachers, individually and together, can establish their own professional learning plans” (The Privilege of Professionalism, 1995 p. 25). The framework would include individual learning, shared learning, learning in local specific communities, innovative learning based on research or local needs and required learning, all of which would be based on appropriate learning principles.

Included would be the requirement that members would report their learning experiences to the College. Accreditation for these programs would be given to providers who meet the criteria outlined by the College. Bill 31 addresses this in its objects and the Council's responsibility in making regulations and by-laws.

The second area is that of standards of practice. The Implementation Committee views the membership as having a significant role in setting entrance standards for teaching and standards for in-service. Bill 31 addresses standards of practice directly as one of its objects "to establish and enforce professional standards and ethical standards applicable to members of the College". (Sec 3 (1) 7). Other objects also address standards or practice in the development of regulations and by-laws.

Communication came from the federations to teachers to oppose the College of Teachers, arguing that Bill 31 would take away "many of the protections currently offered by our provincial and local affiliates. It will force teachers into ongoing professional development and give the public at large the ability to scrutinize our jobs beyond our wildest imagination" (Miller, 1996 p. 3). However, Miller does not outline what those protections are nor does he explain how the public will be able to scrutinize teachers jobs.

The government was determined that Bill 31 would be passed into law and, on April 1, 1996, it was given its second reading. At both the provincial and local levels, federations contacted Members of Provincial Parliament, lobbying them to withdraw support for the College of Teachers. The OSSTF (1996b) feels that by giving a voice to the College of Teachers,

teachers will lose their own voice in the basic aspect of their work. However, it would be extremely difficult for the three provincial parties to withdraw their support since they all agreed in principle and in concept with the College of Teachers (Hansard, April 1, 1996 pp. 2011-2026).

The OTF and affiliates were concerned about the composition of the elected members of the Council and lobbied the members of provincial parliament to speak on their behalf. Richard Patten (Ottawa Centre) spoke of concerns regarding “the portion of the council which is appointed versus elected. ... The teachers’ federations maintain that the inclusion of representatives from the class of supervisory officers, a representative from a private school and a representative elected from the faculty of education does not guarantee that classroom teachers have a majority on the council” (Hansard, April 1, 1997, p. 2015). He continued his presentation with comments on privacy concerns and powers of investigation and discipline. Debate in the Legislative Assembly about Bill 31 continued.

The Standing Committee on Social Development hearings were held over a three-week period in April and May 1996. These hearings provided opportunities for public presentations and input before the third reading of the Bill. Many of the presenters gave a written submission to the Committee and summarized their stance to the Committee in the half-hour time allotted to them. Others who could not present orally to the Committee gave a written submission.

The College of Nurses of Ontario (CNO) was critical of Bill 31 as proposed, in that--it argued--it is “inconsistent with basic principles of professional self-regulation as they relate to the supremacy of the public interest, and assuring the public that all members of the profession

meet common standards” (p. 1). When there is a conflict of interests of the profession and the interests of the public, a regulatory body must always accede the public’s interests to that of the profession’s interest. One object of the college, “to promote the profession of teaching and communicate with the public on behalf of the members of the College” (p. 2) was criticized by CNO because its

inclusion will make distinguishing between the public and professional interest difficult for the Council of the OCT. It blurs the difference between the college as a regulatory versus a professional body. ... Similarly, the public’s faith in OCT is at risk of being undermined before the college has an opportunity to prove that the public interest is paramount for it as a regulatory body. (p. 2)

This particular object was rephrased to read “to communicate with the public on behalf of the members of the College” (Bill 31, Sec. 3(1)(10), July, 1996). The CNO also commented on the public protection not being extended “equally to all students and learning institutions across Ontario” (p. 4)—that not all teachers were compelled to be members— and upon the need for mandatory reporting of abuse. On these and other issues, the CNO recommended changes based on its experiences as a self-governing body.

At the hearings, the Information and Privacy Commissioner, Tom Wright, expressed concern about the contents of public register: that more personal information than necessary could be included in the register which is available to the public. Since the College of Teachers is not covered by the Freedom of Information and Protection of Privacy Act, he recommended that consideration be given to means of maintaining the current privacy rights of the individuals, such as access to their own files. In explaining one of the concerns that the Federation raised concerning the power of the Investigation Committee, the Commissioner outlined that it involved a two-part process: one for the place of employment and one for a person’s home. The latter

would involve the judiciary: “There would have to be affidavit material provided to a justice of the peace and they would then sanction a search for particular kinds of documents” (Hansard, April 15, 1995 p. S-42).

In its presentation, the OTF reiterated that it did not ask for the creation of a College of Teachers and did not believe in its necessity as proposed in Bill 31. Concerns about the Bill centred on the structure of the Governing Council, the investigative powers, the issue of ongoing professional development, the powers of the minister, the question of incapacity and incompetency, and the areas of natural justice and due process within the scope of this legislation. Since 1992, the OTF wanted the regulations made under the Teaching Profession Act revised allowing for public representation on its Relation and Discipline Committee. This, it believed, would afford “a wider range of sanctions and more openness in terms of public disclosure” (Hansard, April 15, 1996 p. S-44). It was also prepared to undertake a registry and accreditation of teacher education programs.

The presenters argued that another bureaucracy complicating lives would be established and would not make the teaching profession self-governing. In addressing accountability, they contended that teachers were already accountable to their principals, school boards, and the Federation through the Teaching Profession Act. On a daily basis, teachers were accountable to students and parents and the OTF presenters added: “It would be to the detriment of the Ontario education system to have a model of self-governance go forward without the enthusiastic endorsement of the teaching profession” (Hansard, April 15, 1996 p. S-44) but they were resigned to some kind of legislation being passed in the House.

The Federation addressed the inappropriateness of the discipline committee “to deal with people who are not fit to teach, ... because of either a physical condition, a mental condition or disorder” (Hansard, April 15, 1996 p. S-45). The OTF believed that fitness to practise was not in the realm of discipline as generally understood and therefore should be treated in a completely different way. They suggested that a Fitness to Practise committee, already existing in other professions, would be more appropriate to handle these situations. Ronald Robert concluded that it is important that “we have the right motives to want to establish a College of Teachers. If we’re trying to be vindictive or trying to put teachers or affiliates in their place, those are the wrong motives” (Hansard, April 15, 1996 p. S-46).

All affiliates presented to the Standing Committee. The OPSTF (1996) saw conflict between objects of the Council and made twenty recommendations concerning the structure of the Governing Council, ongoing professional development, powers of the minister, natural justice, powers of the registrar, protection of personal information, and occasional teachers. The FWTAO welcomed the opportunity for self-government but was concerned with issues of governance and the failure of Bill 31 to protect the fundamental principles inherent in natural justice. Additional areas of concern were admissibility of evidence, full disclosure, incapacity, powers of the investigator, right to obtain information, and disclosure by school boards. “We don’t believe that college’s concept would be a detriment to the profession, but the college as proposed under this bill could in fact impact on the profession” (Hansard April 16 p. S-65). It wants the College to monitor the achievement of gender balance on the Governing Council.

The OSSTF (1996a) identified its objections in the following areas: majority of membership on the Governing Council, “double jeopardy,” discipline, powers of the registrar, self-governance, mandatory recertification, role of the school boards, and protection of privacy. It expressed concerns that some school boards were beginning to divest themselves of their responsibility in professional development. In 1983, the OSSTF opposed the proposed model of self-governance and, at the time of this study, continues to strongly feel that a college of teachers should not go forward without teacher support. To determine membership support for this model, the OSSTF locals surveyed their teacher members; in a secret ballot, 94.8 % of the OSSTF membership surveyed rejected it (Manners, 1996). The OSSTF wants legislation similar to that pertaining to the College of Nurses.

The AEFO expressed different concerns from those of the other affiliates. It was concerned about French-language services, representation of francophone members, and the election process. “L’AEFO veut signaler trois préoccupations particulières vis-à-vis le projet de loi créant l’Ordre des enseignantes et de enseignants de l’Ontario: 1- les services en français, 2- la représentation francophone au conseil de l’Ordre, 3- les élections.” (AEFO, 1996, p. 2). The OECTA recognizes that a College of Teachers “would improve the area of pre-service entry standards into the profession, in-service education and professional and ethical standards” (Hansard, April 22, 1996 p. S-114) but does not believe that Bill 31 as outlined is the vehicle to ensure that. Additional concerns were expressed about incapacity, investigations, natural justice and due process, and mandatory career-long learning.

Other groups presented other issues. The Coalition for Lesbian and Gay Rights in Ontario evinced fear that the College would have a severe negative impact by providing tools which could result in witch hunts against teachers. It was also concerned about “denying teachers basic rights to privacy” (Hansard, April 16, 1996 p. S-71).

Both the Ontario Separate School Trustees Association (OSSTA) (1996) and the Ontario Public School Boards’ Association (OPSBA) (1996) showed support for the concept of the OCT. The OSSTA recognized that “anything that enhances the professional status of teaching we are in favour of, because teachers are the heart of teaching” (Hansard, April 15, 1996 p. S-96). The OSSTA upheld the OTF’s position that incapacity and misconduct be separated into two categories since these are fundamentally different ideas. On the Governing Council, it wants trustee representation from each of the four publicly-funded school systems. In addition, it wants clear definitions of the rights and responsibilities of school boards and the OCT in areas of teacher performance, competence, and misconduct. The OPSBA (1996) made similar recommendations and included ones on the complaints process, employee records, professional development, and certification. It wanted inclusion and recognition of a school board’s role in college activities. Hines (1996), counsel for the OPSBA, criticized the legislation because it does not mention a role for school boards or trustees in the college’s functions. Their only involvement centred on providing requested information. Clearly, the response from the two trustee associations was quite different from the opposition to a college of teachers that they voiced in the early 1980s. Support for the notion of a College of Teachers also came from the Ontario Christian School Teachers’ Association, The Board of Trade for Metropolitan Toronto,

the Ontario Association of Deans of Education, the Ontario Catholic Supervisory Officers Association, and the Ontario Parent Council.

The major areas that caused concern for the presenting groups were governance, regulations yet to be written, accountability, the objects of the College, discipline, and investigations. Each group that presented to the Standing Committee had its own agenda that it wanted advanced. Some of the areas dealt with turf protection, not wanting one sector to dominate another sector or to be perceived having more power. In some cases, groups wanted representation on the Governing Council: for example, the OSSTA wanted trustee representation and the Ontario Parent Council wanted three parents. Other groups wanted particular needs addressed: for instance, the Ontario Federation of Indian Friendship Centres wanted to exempt some persons from certification as qualified teachers to teach native languages.

The Standing Committee, via teleconference, met with the British Columbia College of Teachers (BCCT) (Hansard, April 16, 1996 pp. S-58-S-75). The College explained that investigations are becoming more complex and the issue of balancing public access to information with the protection of privacy now requires attention. It differentiated among misconduct (having to do with behaviour), incompetence (having to do with one's duties in the classroom in the instructional sense), and incapacity (having to do with carrying out one's duties related to a medical condition). Professional development as a function of the BCCT is not addressed because there are enough groups providing it. This teleconference provided for the committee an opportunity to question a college established for teachers but there were no B. C.

Teachers' Federation representatives in attendance to present their perspective resulting in the Standing Committee's having only one side of the picture in British Columbia.

After the last presentation to the Standing Committee on Wednesday, April 24, 1996, amendments were drawn up for Bill 31 and brought back to the Standing Committee for clause-by-clause discussion which occurred the following week (Hansard April 30, 1996). Some changes included "housekeeping," such as correcting Section 3 (1) 5 from "to issue, renew, amend, suspend, cancel, revoke and reinstate certificates of registration and qualification" to read "to issue, renew, amend, suspend, cancel, revoke and reinstate certificates of qualification and registration" since a person must qualify before registration can occur. The housekeeping changes would allow the College to function more effectively, according to the Government. Some recommended changes were not accepted, such as altering the number of representatives on the Governing Council, as suggested by the Opposition. Some motions to recommend changes were lost since, in the Government's opinion, they were better suited to by-laws (for example, majority of members constituting a quorum). Other changes were more substantive. A new section was added, outlining that the majority of members on all statutory committees would be from the elected membership of the Council and that on all panels of a committee there would be at least one elected member and one appointed member. This addition would ensure that on the major committees the membership of the College would hold the majority.

The Fitness to Practise Committee was introduced as a statutory committee which would deal with the issue of incapacity of a College member. This would be distinct from the Discipline Committee. The Federations had lobbied to have this separation since they felt that

the incapacity of a member to teach may not be the inability to teach but rather may be other issues interfering with the ability to teach. They were successful since all three parties supported the addition of this committee. This is an important addition since incompetence and incapacity are two distinct areas. Incompetence deals with a member not teaching effectively while incapacity deals with questions about a member's physical or mental condition or disorder that may incapacitate practice. Related to discussion was also a stipulation that someone considered by the Discipline Committee would not have recourse to the Fitness to Practise Committee later on. The introduction of the Fitness to Practise Committee resulted in a number of amended sections, such as Section 24(3) of the Bill, now reading "no persons who is a members of the discipline committee or the fitness to practise committee shall be a member of the investigation committee."

Other amendments included the provision for the Registration Appeals Committee to undo an act of the registrar when the applicant presents an appeal to the Registration Appeals Committee after the 60-day appeal interval. Related to the Registration Appeals Committee, both opposition parties spoke of the need for natural justice and upholding administrative law in guaranteeing that an individual appealing a decision on registration be given a hearing. The Government disagreed believing that this can be handled by appealing to the Divisional Court and because the Government holds power, this amendment was lost.

Some amendments were introduced during the Standing Committee Hearing on the clause-by-clause debate. One concerned the disposal of complaints to the College. Using its best efforts, the Investigation Committee is to dispose of the complaint within 120 days of its being

filed with the registrar. This amendment was introduced by the Opposition, modified by the Government side, and accepted.

The number of committee members on Discipline was decreased from 13 to 11 (of which at least 4 are public appointments) and provided for 5 members on the Fitness to Practise Committee (of which 1 at least is a public appointment); the chairs of both committees shall come from the respective committee members. Because of the introduction of the Fitness to Practise Committee, the finding of the Discipline Committee in incompetence was restricted to considering matters of knowledge, skill, or judgement or disregard for a student. It could not find on matters related to a member's physical or mental condition or disorder in determining fitness to continue as a teacher. That now was the function of the Fitness to Practise Committee which would conduct "a separate process through which issues of incapacity may be reviewed in a more facilitative and supportive forum with a view to rehabilitation rather than punishment" (Hansard, April 30, 1996, p. S-166). During the debate on Section 33, the Opposition expressed concern about the lack of notice given to the member being investigated and wanted notice given to the member within five days, with "reasonable information about the grounds for the investigation" (Hansard, April 30, 1996, p. S-168) and copies of all documents that the registrar would consider in the final outcome. The Government argued that there are "appropriate checks to ensure that this power [of investigation] is not abused" (Hansard, April 30, 1996, p. S-169). Often throughout the clause-by-clause debate, the comment such as "the Regulated Health Professions Act has very similar provisions" were made, and the discussion of this section was no different. However, the appropriateness of using other existing legislation to support one's

position must be questioned because that legislation may not be the most suitable available. The final outcome, however, was that the motion was lost.

The issue of the composition of the Governing Council was discussed again in this last session of the Standing Committee. The Opposition put forward three amendments: the Council majority are elected teachers: one is a private school teacher and one is a member approved by the Aboriginal Education Council and coming from the publicly-funded systems. It recognizes that 17 are elected and with their recommended change, 16 teachers would come from publicly-funded systems, and that there would be no elected representation from the faculties of education or the supervisory officers' associations. From the ensuing discussions, concerns centred on the federations having a majority on the council and that the federations might influence the electoral process. Another point raised was that the current proposal was consistent with the Regulated Health Professions Act. Again this Act is influencing the discussion for educators. One can argue that because supervisory officers are not, on a daily basis, in the classroom they do not have the perspective of the classroom teacher. They do, however, bring a perspective that is different from, but equally valid, to that of the classroom teacher. After an hour of discussion, a recorded vote was taken with no new amendments to the section.

The Bill included the provision that the College of Teachers, when established, would bear the expenses of the Ontario College of Teachers Implementation Committee which have been estimated as high as \$1 million dollars. The justice of the situation was discussed and it was asserted that it was not fair to have the teachers pay for the implementation of a college which was initially a government activity and one for which the government should accept

responsibility. This argument supports Aucoin's (1978) view that Governments off-load activities with the intent that the consumers (in this instance, teachers) pay for it. This motion was also lost.

While the Standing Committee process provided opportunities for those with particular concerns to present them at the hearings, it was the amendments that the Government side believed important that were included in the final bill. From the Minister's perspective, the "amendments to the bill ... improve the legislation, while maintaining its original principles" (Professionally Speaking September 1996, p. 1).

The short title of the Act was amended by changing the year from 1995 to 1996 so it reads Ontario College of Teachers Act, 1996. It was given third reading on June 17, 1996, Royal Assent on June 27, 1996, and proclaimed on July 5, 1996.

In summary, the 17 members of the Governing Council are elected by the College membership and consist of one elementary and one secondary school member elected from each of four regions and elected provincially are two members from each of the public, Catholic, and French-language school systems; one supervisory officer; one private school representative; and one academic staff member from a faculty of education. The 14 members appointed by the Minister of Education and Training represent both the public interest and the interests of the wider educational community. This Council is responsible for 5 Statutory Committees -- Executive, Investigation, Discipline, Registration Appeals, Fitness to Practise, 5 Standing Committees--Accreditation, Communication, Finance, Quality Assurance, Standards of Practice

and Education, and 2 Special Committees—Elections, Nomination. Each committee has specific duties and responsibilities it must undertake. The College will develop professional standards of practice defining what knowledge and skills teachers should have at various stages of their professional careers, set standards for pre-service teacher education programs that graduating teachers must meet to enter teaching, monitor all teacher education programs ensuring compliance, and develop an induction process supporting associate teachers assisting beginning teachers. In the area of professional learning, a provincial framework for professional learning that includes various types of learnings will be developed and implemented. It will accredit all professional learning programs and the providing organizations to ensure that the programs are appropriate for the membership. The membership will report their professional learning experiences to the College within established timeframes.

A number of functions that were carried out by other groups would be given over to the College of Teachers and other functions related to teacher services would remain with the original group. The division of Federation and College responsibilities is defined as the Federation's continuing to be answerable to its membership and the College's being answerable to the public. Collective bargaining, protective services, and professional development would continue to be given by the OTF and its affiliates for their members. Teachers' rights as stipulated by the collective agreements will continue. The trust of teacher discipline would be transferred from the OTF to the College. The role of the OTF and the affiliates would continue to be representing membership. The College's Disciplinary Committee rather than the Ministry of Education and Training would take control of the processing of complaints. The obligation

for the removal of a teaching certificate, where warranted, would shift from the Minister of Education and Training to the College.

From the announcement of the College to Royal Assent, there was discussion with the federations on an informal level. “Even in the early days, when the Federations took a firm stance against the Ontario College of Teachers, ... [the Federations] let us authorize our general secretaries to sit down and talk with these people [from the College] (Lalonde, 1996). Affiliate and Federation representatives met with staff from the College to discuss process (e.g., transfer of responsibilities, etc.). Baumann (1996) described a growing acceptance of the fact that the College would become a reality and that it was better to participate in discussions, however slow, than to be shut out.

The majority of today’s teachers, including many of the certificated staff members of the Federation and affiliates, were teaching in the 1970s and 1980s when there were other discussions about the notion of a College of Teachers. During those times, the idea was not favourably received for a variety of reasons. Those who were involved in the discussions saw the College of Teachers as closely linked to the Ontario Teachers’ Federation (Lalonde, 1996). The other issue that came into play was the appointment of the Registrar Designate by the Minister of Education and Training, Dave Cooke. Margaret Wilson, Secretary Treasurer of the OTF, was appointed to the position. Wilson had always been a strong supporter of the Federation and, as president of the OTF, led the OTF out of the meeting with Bette Stephenson, the Minister of Education. It was Wilson who had indicated that, if the agenda for that meeting included a

discussion on the College of Teachers, there would be no meeting since the Federations strongly opposed the idea of a College of Teachers.

Summary

This chapter has outlined the process in developing the report of the Ontario College of Teachers Implementation Committee and reviewed the key elements of The Privilege of Professionalism that have been assumed into Bill 31 which became the Ontario College of Teachers Act (1996). It has presented many of the concerns of the groups and individuals that would be directly affected by the creation of the Ontario College of Teachers and has highlighted some of the committees and membership on the Governing Council.

Chapter 6 discusses how two jurisdictions have dealt with the idea of self-governance, what are the issues of concern, how they are currently operating and how they are perceived by the membership and other stakeholders.

CHAPTER SIX
THE GENERAL TEACHING COUNCIL FOR SCOTLAND
AND THE BRITISH COLUMBIA COLLEGE OF TEACHERS

Introduction

Currently two jurisdictions have a college of teachers model that has been described as self-governing. This chapter will examine the characteristics and features of the Ontario model that are similar to, and different, from the Scottish and British Columbian models. Some other western nations (Australia - Queensland, South Australia, and New Zealand) have Teacher Registration Councils or Boards that administer registration and deregistration of teachers. They review qualifications of teachers who have received their teacher education out of their jurisdiction to receive local teaching certificates. In effect, the Boards administer the complete teacher registration process. These, however, cannot be described as self-governing since they do not control the major aspects of a professional governance body. Other jurisdictions (England and Hong Kong) are discussing the development of a College of Teachers.

The Scottish and British Columbian models are important because they have been studied by the Ontario College of Teachers (OCT) Implementation Committee in preparing The Privilege of Professionalism report and in developing the Ontario model. These models were analysed to

determine which of their aspects would be appropriate for and should be included in the Ontario plan. Representatives of the OCT Implementation Committee met with officials of the General Teaching Council for Scotland and the British Columbia College of Teachers to discuss the specific objects of each, how these are implemented, and the processes by which each was established. These discussions helped inform the decision-making of the Implementation Committee.

The General Teaching Council for Scotland

Background

Historically, similarities exist between Ontario and Scotland regarding teacher training in the post World War II years. In 1945, the Ontario Department of Education instituted a five-week summer course permitting qualifying high school graduates from the previous June to receive an interim certificate to teach in elementary school (Fleming 1971). The Federation of Women Teachers' Association (FWTAO) established an unequivocal policy of objecting to this solution to teacher shortage. The policy stated that to solve this problem, improved salary and status were needed; however, that suggestion did not offer an immediate solution to the problem that the Department of Education faced. The FWTAO was not satisfied with the five-week summer-school solution and conveyed this message to the Department of Education early on in the crisis when teachers trained in shorter and less demanding programs were granted the same First Class Certificate. Older members of the profession had obtained the same credentials but with more effort and a longer training period (Fleming, 1971). In Scotland, from 1945 on, to

ensure that there were teachers in classrooms, uncertificated teachers were employed, causing much bitterness because the standard of qualified teachers was high and these teachers wanted to raise, not lower, these standards (Ingles, 1972).

In Scotland over time, the governments of the day worked to recruit teachers by reducing the required qualifications: university graduating courses were reduced from three to two years, training courses for graduates with pass degrees were reduced from four terms to three terms, the category of academic teachers in the highest secondary classes was widened to include third-class honours degrees, and the training period was further reduced from three terms to two. A special committee of the Advisory Committee on Education in Scotland made several proposals to alleviate the shortage but these were not accepted. "Teachers began to feel that increased recruitment was to be secured by lowering standards"(Ingles 1972 p.8). This situation was similar to Ontario.

McPherson and Raab (1988) have documented that, in 1949, Scottish educational authorities employed approximately 900 uncertificated teachers with little hope of eliminating them from teaching. By 1961, uncertificated teachers totalled nearly 2300 and the number was rising. Local authorities used uncertificated teachers to staff classes in order to prevent oversized classes and to increase part-time schooling. In the early 1960s, Scotland experienced turbulence in the education community with teacher militancy erupting for the first time. While the disruption was centred mainly in Glasgow, it had far-reaching effects. The employment of uncertificated teachers was the catalyst; this was anathema to the teachers who were concerned about their economic position and raising teachers' standing with the public.

Teachers were not supportive of using unqualified workers as teachers and pledged to strike. One week prior to the strike date of May 8, 1961, The Glasgow Herald (Teachers take strike pledge) reported that 5000 of Glasgow's 7000 teachers had signed up. The majority who were involved with the strike were from the Educational Institute of Scotland (EIS). The teachers gave an ultimatum to the Secretary of State for Scotland demanding satisfaction for their grievances over dilution and salaries. Both the Scottish Schoolmasters' Association (SSA) and the Scottish Secondary Teachers' Association (SSTA) supported a one-day strike. While agreeing "to strike action in principle and authorised their executive to undertake a policy of coercive action ... the association [SSTA] showed their determination to maintain order in their own house by refusing either to support the action taken unilaterally by their Glasgow members to join in the strike of city teachers ... or to give financial backing to those members who go on strike" (The Glasgow Herald May 1, 1961 p. 7). Outside Glasgow, the only teachers who took part in the strike were the SSA members in Lanarkshire, Renfrewshire, and Ayrshire who struck for one day.

Events of the week leading up to the strike were chronicled by The Glasgow Herald (May 2, 1961). It outlined the support for teachers that came from the leader of the Labour Party who recognized that teachers were first concerned about pay, but also were troubled about dilution and standards of the profession. John Maclay, the Secretary of State for Scotland, agreed to discuss the problem of dilution. This agreement was seen as a limited concession. A petition on dilution, signed by 12,080 Scottish teachers, was to be presented to Maclay. The EIS "does not regard the threat of dilution as being confined to the introduction of non-graduate men teachers. Possibly a more serious threat was the Scottish Education Department's proposal to

introduce content courses at colleges of education to enable non-graduates, both men and women, to teach academic and technical subjects in secondary schools” (The Glasgow Herald, May 3, 1961 p. 1). In addition, the Glasgow members of the Scottish Schoolmasters Association, while supported financially by SSA only for a one-day strike, decided to strike for the full five days.

Part of the discussions that took place during the strike dealt with a proposed teachers’ council. As outlined in The Glasgow Herald, (May 6, 1961), “the proposed teachers’ council would have powers to regulate entry into the profession, maintain a register of qualified teachers, and discipline teachers at every level” (p. 1). The organizers of the idea “intend to ask all teachers in Scotland to support the scheme and to urge its adoption by the teachers’ organizations as joint policy. The council, they suggest, would be set up by the existing professional bodies, and its membership would be composed principally of teachers with representatives from the universities and the Scottish Education Department” (p. 1). The rally meeting of 3500 striking teachers presented the following resolution:

This meeting of teachers (a) unreservedly condemns the refusal of the Secretary of State for Scotland to inform the professional and the public of his intentions in Railton to the dilutionary question raised in the departmental memorandum in the training of teachers and (b) vehemently protests against previous attempts by the Secretary of State for Scotland to deprive Scottish teachers of the right of free salary negotiations.

Consequently this meeting, aware of the real needs of Scottish education, demands that steps be taken to obtain (a) control of entry into the teaching profession by the profession itself, and (b) salary negotiating machinery acceptable to the whole profession. Finally having no confidence in the ability of the present Secretary of State to exact these reasonable demands from the government, we have no option but to call for his immediate resignation. (The Glasgow Herald May 9, 1961 p. 1)

At the May 9, 1961 (The Glasgow Herald, May 10, 1961) meeting where the council was presented, the role and format of such an organization were outlined further. A Teachers' Council would establish standards that all prospective entrants must observe. It would decide on certification standards and whether the training institutions' curricula were acceptable. It would compile a teachers' register and its qualifications would be laid down by the Scottish Teachers' Council. It "would have powers of discipline for teachers falling foul of the law and those guilty of 'infamous conduct in any professional respect'" (p. 1). The council majority would be teachers "but there must also be representatives of other bodies who were interested in teaching. 'There would be a narrow teaching majority of seven, close enough to make us uncomfortable if we were to introduce any reactionary measure but sufficient to ensure that if the serving teachers are of like mind, they have the say in the council'" (p. 1).

After the 1961 strike, the relationship between the teachers and the Secretary of State for Scotland did not improve. The Secretary of State and Parliament controlled the existing system. By the end of 1961, the Government appointed a committee representative of government, educational administrators, universities, head teachers, unions, and colleges with the mandate to examine the rights of teachers to participate more fully in professional affairs. The committee, chaired by Lord Wheatley, consisted of twenty-one members, thirteen of whom were certificated. When the committee met, it did not think that "the existing arrangements, including essentially the certification of teachers by the Secretary of State, were defective or deficient" (Archer and Peck, 1982, p. 25) and did not doubt the quality of teachers produced under the current system. However, as evidenced by its belief statement, the Commission's view changed during the discussions. The Wheatley Commission believed it had two choices: 1) a teaching council that

acted as a repository of a register (i.e., total control over a limited field), or 2) a teaching council that would have wider powers in education (i.e., partial control over a wider field). It decided on the second choice with the belief that a teaching council would be beneficial to teachers and education.

We are convinced that the setting up of a Council would bring many benefits, not only for the teaching profession but also for the education service as a whole. It would, for example, give the teaching profession effective opportunity for the exercise of responsibility and it would do a great deal to enhance the general standing of the profession, both in its own eyes and in those of the public. An increase in the prestige of teaching as a profession is bound to help recruitment. More generally, the progressive development of Scottish education depends on the cooperation of the teachers; it is right that their legitimate aspirations should be satisfied (Ingles, 1972 p. 19).

There were two views of the report: one was to get “an agreed report”; the other was to get “a right report.” The tone of the report, according to McPherson and Raab (1988), suggested that the Committee found some arguments for a teachers’ professional body less than convincing. “The ‘agreed report’ therefore proposed a General Teaching Council with substantial control over standards of entry to training, and with powers to register and discipline teachers. The ‘right report’, in the Department’s eyes, might well have been one which devolved less power to a professional council than Wheatley did” (p. 275).

The Committee found, however, that improved status for teachers was needed. While teachers formed the largest group of well-qualified, highly professional people in Scotland, as Archer and Beck (1982) found, they did not have status, position, or authority. They compared themselves less favourably with other professions and believed that too many major determinations about professional matters and concerns were left to others to make. In preparation of the report, three overriding issues--constitutions of other professional bodies,

government responsibility for education, and interest of the public need to be met--were discussed. The central issues were determining award and withdrawal of certificates, standards of competency, the relationship of these to government responsibility and academic rights, and teachers' roles in these issues. Dated June 1963, the report, The Teaching Profession in Scotland--Arrangements for the Award and Withdrawal of Certificates of Competency to Teach, based on the findings and discussions, presented its main contention: "our survey of the present arrangement in this field of teaching and in other professions has led us to the unanimous opinion that new machinery should be devised for the teaching profession and that there should be established a General Teaching Council for Scotland, broadly similar in scope, powers and functions to the Councils in other professions" (p. 2) (Ingles 1972 p. 10).

To assist in developing the constitution and membership, the Committee prepared guiding principles. It envisioned a powerful council developing into "a body of great prestige and act as a main source of ideas and initiative over a wide field of matters of concern to the teaching profession" (Ingles, 1972 p. 13). Its membership should be well balanced and representative of educators who contribute to teacher certification and not dominated by one interest. Certificated teachers should have substantial representation (Ingles, 1972).

Membership on the Governing Council was recommended as follows:

School and college staffs - certificated teachers serving in day schools, further education centres and colleges of education, and elected by teachers	21
- certificated teachers serving as Principals in colleges of education and chosen by Principals.	4
Association of Directors of Education	4
Universities	3
Central Institutions (includes college of art and colleges of domestic science working up to an advanced level)	2
Local authority associations	4
Persons appointed by the Secretary of State	6
Total	44

(Ingles 1972, pp. 14-15)

Minimally 25 out of 44 would be certificated teachers.

The Wheatley Committee also addressed the issue of relationship between the teaching council and the Government. It concluded that since public funds were spent on education and since education was compulsory, it could not deny the Government the right to decide the qualifications of teachers. "The problem, then, is to devise a method by which the legitimate aspirations of the profession towards a greater measure of authority over standards of entrance to training can be reconciled with the need to retain Parliamentary responsibility" (Ingles, 1972, p. 32). The Committee made recommendations about development of regulations, conflict resolution, exceptional admission to colleges of education, right of appeal, and college visitation.

The Teaching Council (Scotland) Act, creating the General Teaching Council for Scotland (GTC), was enacted in 1965. It embodies the major proposals made by the Wheatley Committee regarding Council membership. The only change made was the provision for representation of the Church of Scotland and the Roman Catholic Church, with two places reserved for each church and representation of the Secretary of State was reduced to four.

Certificated Teacher membership was defined as follows:

- a) 5 registered teachers employed in colleges of education, including 4 (but not more than 4) principals
- b) 2 registered teachers employed in further education centres, including 1 (but not more than 1) principal
- c) 9 registered teachers employed in secondary schools including 5 (but not more than 5) head teachers
- d) 9 registered teachers employed in primary schools, including 5 (but not more than 5) head teachers. (Ingles, 1972, pp.18-19)

along with the appointments of other groups associated with education.

Ingles (1972) describes the objects of the Council as being close to those recommended by the Wheatley Committee. Currently the objects are

1. to keep under review standards of education, training and fitness to teach appropriate to persons entering the teaching profession and to make to the Secretary of State from time to time such recommendations with respect to these standards as it thinks fit; and to make recommendations on such other matters (in the same field) as it thinks fit or as may be referred to it by the Secretary of State;
2. to consider and make recommendations to the Secretary of State on matters (other than remuneration and conditions of service) relating to the supply of teachers;
3. to keep informed of the nature of instruction given in colleges of education and to undertake such other functions in relation to them as may be assigned by the Secretary of State.
4. to establish and keep a register containing the names, addresses and such qualifications and other particulars as may be prescribed of persons who are entitled to be registered and who apply in the prescribed manner; and

5. to determine whether in any particular case under their Disciplinary powers registration is to be withdrawn or refused (General Teaching Council for Scotland, 1993, pp. 7-8).

The Council has a “duty to make proposals on any matter relating to the education, training and fitness to teach, of teachers and this may be done on the initiative of the Council or at the request of the Secretary of State” (Ingles 1972, p. 19). In addition to Object 4 given above, the Council “may appoint visitors who are to report on the content and arrangement of college courses; ... and may recommend to the college governors changes in the content of arrangement of college courses” (Ingles 1972 p. 20). The Council is “empowered to make rules respecting the form of the register and in particular to institute provisional registration” (p. 21). Provisions may be made by the Council that are expedient for the rules. Since the initial functions were defined, one more has been articulated: “to determine whether in any particular case under its Disciplinary powers registration is to be withdrawn or refused” (GTC 1990, p. 8). The General Teaching Council for Scotland was inaugurated in 1966.

While the current Registrar of the GTC may be forgiven for his biases toward the GTC, Ivor Sutherland (1996) believes that the Council has been a forward move for teaching, both today and in the early 1960s. He asks, “What can be more important for the teaching profession than the opportunity to take command of its own professional affairs and control of its own destiny?” (p. 4).

Early Years

At the outset of the founding of the GTC, as with many new organizations, there were problems. McIntyre (Depute Registrar Administration) (1996) recognized that for the first five years, the situation was one of survival. McPherson and Raab (1988) characterize the early years of the GTC as challenging with its authority frequently tested. There were approximately 3000 uncertificated teachers, of whom 700 according to Archer and Peck (1982) were hopelessly substandard and had to go.

The establishment of a teachers' registry was seriously threatened at the beginning. "The Council's inability to put a quick end to the employment of uncertificated teachers at a time of severe teacher shortage ... embroiled it in conflict" (McPherson and Raab, 1988 p. 277-278). A large number of teachers were dismissed by authorities for refusing to register. Many teachers, at first, refused to register on principle, because the Secretary of State would not accept the plan for dismissing the unqualified teachers. This plan would have created part-time education for many students and that would have been politically disastrous for the Secretary of State.

The fact that experienced teachers were not automatically registered with the Council distressed the teachers (Forrester⁹, 1996). The cost of being registered was upsetting to teachers, who objected greatly because, what was free in previous years, was now costing a pound. They favoured a self-governing profession but not the cost. Jack Malloch, a teacher, was so incensed at being forced to register (and pay) that he refused and was "sacked" by the Aberdeen Council.

⁹Forrester, Fred. Mr. Forrester is the Depute General Secretary of The Educational Institute of Scotland.

He found a loophole in the regulation that an existing teacher should not be forced to register and took his objection all the way to the House of Lords. Although the process took several years, he was vindicated. His opposition was not to the Council but to paying for something that had been free before. Later, as a result of this court decision, the legislation governing the GTC was changed and this change was supported by the unions.

There was “anxiety among the teachers’ organizations that the Council would become a sort of super teachers’ union which would get to the Secretary of State ... before they did” (McPherson and Raab, 1988, p. 278). Over the next several years, the GTC, the Secretary of State, and the teachers’ organizations had numerous discussions and debates, described by McPherson and Raab as ‘skirmishes’, on a number of issues. At issue in these early years were questions of power and control. To what extent could the GTC control its affairs and to what extent were its powers limited? Both the EIS and the SSTA were not totally convinced of the value of the GTC. Many teachers, who had been teaching for a long time, were concerned about the registration and viewed it as a change in conditions of service and terms of employment (Duncan¹⁰, 1996). Once the main unions’ opposition to registration was withdrawn, more teachers registered.

The political will to set up and sustain the Council was essential to its continuance. In his written message to the inaugural GTC meeting, William Ross, the Secretary of State for Scotland and a former teacher, recognized that this meeting was “the starting point of a new phase in the affairs of the teaching profession” (Ross, 1966). He raised the problem of supply and training of

¹⁰Duncan, Craig. Mr. Duncan is the Acting General Secretary of the Secondary School Teachers’ Association in Scotland.

teachers and stated that the Council “will be charged with duties in connection with the supply of teachers” (Ross, 1966). The issue of uncertificated teachers continued. Ross’s Junior Minister, Brian Millan, was disenchanted with the Council, believing that the GTC was unrealistic in demanding the immediate dismissal of every non-certified teacher. The attitude of the Secretary of State, however, was different. At several crucial points, the Secretary’s concessions assisted the GTC when the teachers’ unions were poised to withdraw support (McPherson and Raab, 1988). McIntyre (1996) credits Secretary of State Ross for not allowing the GTC to fall by the way: “if it hadn’t been for him, the council could well have gone under.”

McPherson and Raab (1988) view the founding of the GTC as a concession to teachers and one that the Scottish Education Department (SED) could not overlook. The concessions included more regular teacher consultation and recognition of professional status. Initially after the strike, teachers were more involved in various aspects of education and sat on committees. They concluded that

The prize teachers wanted the most was a council which would elevate their public- and self-esteem, and which would also increase the voice of the profession in educational decision-making. Teachers wished to emulate doctors and others who had powers to regulate their affairs and to license practitioners, and whose status was linked to these responsibilities. The Department in acknowledging teachers’ professionalism, also saw an advantage to itself and the local authorities: ‘an increase in the prestige of teaching as a profession is bound to help recruitment.’ (p. 288)

As McPherson and Raab (1988) concluded, herein lay the dilemma. The public wanted teachers in its schools. The teachers did not want uncertificated teachers. In granting self-regulation to the teachers, the Department would relinquish its right to control entry standards to teacher training and ultimately determine the size of the teaching force. “Local authorities would benefit if a GTC eventually attracted sufficient teachers into the national pool to solve the teacher

shortage problem. But until then uncertificated teachers would still be needed. The SED [Scottish Education Department] had long resisted the blandishments of the teachers' associations to foreclose the possibility of uncertificated and therefore 'unprofessional' teachers serving in the classroom" (p. 288).

A review of the minutes of the GTC meetings in its first year shows discussions centred on location of headquarters, framing of standing order for the council (an urgent task), and appointment of a steering committee to examine activities confronting the Council and make recommendations on how this is to be handled. Further, the establishment of the Register, appointment of committees, location of meetings (i.e., not always in Edinburgh), finance, and staffing generated dialogue (GTC minutes Vol. 1, 1966/1). At subsequent meetings, topics included establishing committees for Investigating, Exceptional Admission to the Register, Disciplinary, and Finance and General Purpose (GTC minutes Vol. 1, 1966/4). However, the problem of uncertificated teachers (GTC minutes Vol. 1, 1966/8) remained. These actions outlined above appear to be in keeping with an organization beginning to put its mandate into operation. In their assessment, McPherson and Raab (1988) believe that there was little opportunity for either the GTC to elicit advice or to provide it confidently in its early years since registration was a highly contentious issue, requiring much of the Council's energy.

The following year, the GTC began to assert itself. It warned the Secretary of State about raising the age of school leaving in 1970 and its fear that there would not be enough teachers (GTC minutes Vol. 1 1967/15). A committee was struck to review the supply of teachers regarding the school age committee (GTC minutes Vol. 1, 1967/16). Ross attended the meeting

on November 17, 1967 and announced that effective August 1, 1968, all primary teachers “would have to be registered or conditionally registered by the Council and uncertificated teachers would be barred”(GTC minutes Vol. 1, 1967/23), however, uncertificated secondary school teachers were not excluded. Council members felt that exclusion of uncertificated teachers in secondary schools must also have a ‘sunset date’, that is, as soon as possible after August 1, 1968. Thus, one aspect of the uncertificated teacher problem was resolved.

By January 19, 1968, 24,300 applications for membership had been received and 19,000 accounts had been issued. (GTC minutes Vol. 1, 1968/26). One year later, the GTC had dealt with 50,903 applications for registrations and 1,687 for conditional registration (GTC minutes Vol. 1, 1969/33). By March 1984, 80,134 teachers were reported on the register (Humes, 1986), and by 1996, registration was set at 77,031 (GTC 1996a) with following sectors: Primary - 36,767, Secondary - 38,185, Further Education - 1,383, Relevant Institutions - 682, and Non-voters - 14.

The Secretary of State had promised an early review of the council with the composition of the Council as one issue and the Council’s perceived ready acceptance of the Secretary of State’s decisions as the other. The public image of the GTC was that it was part of the “establishment” with a “shocking maldistribution of representation” (Archer and Peck, p. 27). Legislative changes increased the Council membership from 44 to 49 with elected teacher members increasing from 21 to 26, thereby ensuring that now the majority on the council were elected teachers. The requirement that a proportion of teachers places be filled by head teachers

was abolished. The majority of teachers early on came from the EIS but, in subsequent elections, the SSTA was represented.

McPherson and Raab (1988) interviewed Gray, the first registrar, who commented on both elected and nominated council members during his tenure as registrar. It was Gray's belief that not enough persons of quality were attracted to the Council. Those members most interested were teachers, principals, and the employing authorities. The other representatives of interested bodies had poor attendance records due to their own business affairs. He complimented the one or two university members who have been

outstandingly good, but the others indifferent. So decision-making, planning, formulation of educational ideals, are largely the work of teachers and principals. ... Now, the teacher members are elected in a national election because they have become known in the work of their association, and come very often, normally in fact, primed with policy which they repeat parrot-fashion, and which is not their original thinking. ... Perhaps people are elected simply because they are names that are known, and very often the best brains in the profession have nothing to do with teacher politics and are unknown as a consequence. (p. 280)

His comments raise concerns about the elections to determine teacher representation and appointments to determine public representation on any Governing Council for any self-governing organizations.

Ivor Sutherland (1996) offers his views on public representation on the Council. Substantial debate in the 1960s concluded that the Council would exact greater respect if it was representative of the broader educational community along with the teaching community. He believes that the Council has more significance with public representation and particularly at meetings of, for example, the Probation Committee or the Disciplinary Committee, that the role on non-teacher members is to demonstrate that fairness occurs, and that the profession is not

“closing ranks to hide a teacher who is not fit to continue to be registered. In other words, the inclusion of non-teacher members is a form of accountability” (p. 5). His emphasis is on the GTC as a teaching council, not a teachers’ council.

Middle Years

After those first turbulent years, the Council moved from strength to strength (McIntyre, 1996). Twelve years after its inception, some discussions had moved on, while others remained on the agenda. Employment of unregistered persons where registration is a condition of employment was still discussed. Additional topics included teachers in training, secondary and primary school staffing, introduction of examination in Religious Education, grants from the Secretary of State, the cost of meetings, teacher qualifications in English-as-a-Second Language, disciplinary hearings, medical fitness to teach, missionary visits, etc. (GTC minutes Vol. 4 1979/5).

Over the years there have been changes in the Regulations which govern the GTC. After a long battle, the GTC won legislation requiring college of education lecturers whose duties included instruction of students in teacher education programmes to be registered (Kirk, 1988). The lecturers must also have relevant experience of school teaching to ensure they are up to date (Munroe, 1991).

By 1991, the discussions had moved further along. They included “Higher Education: A New Framework,” parents helping in schools, staff development, discipline, and accreditation

and review. The discussions no longer centred on survival but dealt with many educational issues and the responsibilities of the GTC as originally viewed and the GTC was not involved in the survival skirmishes of the early years (GTC minutes Vol.7, 1991/4).

Current Status

The initial hostility has gone. There are still a few 'hands' who remember life before the GTC but 75% of teachers have never known anything but the GTC (McIntyre, 1996). Issues under discussion during the 1996 council meetings included the government inquiry into higher education, communication, Scottish Select Committee on the Education (Scotland) Bill, registration statistics, education conference, the on-going issue of probationers, probationer teachers study, course accreditation and review, and bridging courses. At the October 1996 General Meeting in Inverness, the Secretary of State, Raymond Robertson, attended for the first time. At this meeting, he reemphasized the point that the GTC is a teaching council, not a teachers' council. Teacher concerns at that meeting focused on probationary teachers and their probation period (i.e., the types of teaching experiences they were receiving). Four areas were considered by the GTC in its discussions: complementality (recognizing the partnerships required to certificate teachers), assessment, the role of the employing authorities, and teacher professionalism. Another issue related to teacher education and schools currently occupies the Council's attention: concern in the schools exists about the relationship between teacher education institutions and the schools and how students are selected and placed to be supervised. Evident from the review of the minutes since the Council's inception is the fact that discussions have moved beyond the survival mode obvious in its first years of operation.

Currently, there are three statutory committees: Investigating, Disciplinary, and Exceptional Admission to the Register; several Standing Committees including Accreditation and Review, Chairman's, Communications, Education, Probation which includes Probation Appeals Board, Finance and General Purposes, Further Education; and Ad Hoc Committees such as Short Life Working Group, which will "explore the growth and development of the Council during the next phase of its life" (GTC, 1996b, p. 13). In its early days, the Council used both the committee and "Working Party" format to conduct certain activities. The tasks of the "working party" varied but, generally, it was a short term (and, at times, urgent) activity undertaken by the Council.

In the investigating and disciplinary aspects of the Council, matters related to false or deceptive declaration, serious misconduct, or court conviction for a serious offence can lead to removal or suspension for a defined period of time. While the Council can discipline its members, the teacher also has protection since he/she is judged by peers and has the right to appeal. In the last 12 month period, about 10 have lost their certificates to teach for disciplinary reasons (McIntyre, 1996). Since 1989, all applicants for registration must be screened through the Scottish criminal records office to see if there are any criminal convictions. McIntyre (1996) indicated that "since the criminal check is so well known, ... intended applicants will check with the GTC to see if any previous conviction that they may have would be an impediment to being registered." The only power that the GTC has is to take a teacher off the register or leave him/her on the register. There are no powers to issue a rebuke or suspend someone for a period of time; this is currently being examined. In the absence of a criminal conviction, it is very difficult to deal with a conduct case. If there is a criminal conviction, the question becomes

whether or not the teacher is fit to be before the classroom. The Council carefully reviews each disciplinary case and is so meticulous in its work that there has been only one appeal of a disciplinary decision up to September 1996 (McIntyre 1996).

The GTC receives applications from teachers from other educational systems and it is the responsibility of the Exceptional Admission to the Register to examine these teachers' qualifications and experiences. The GTC has been affected, as of January 1991, by The Mobility of Labour Directive in the European Union, which states that if a person is qualified in one country, the individual must be allowed to exercise skills in another member nation. The GTC was challenged by that directive because it no longer had absolute power over outsiders and therefore could not deny registration. The GTC solved its dilemma by allowing conditional registration and by outlining what is required to meet Scottish standards (Forrester, 1996). The GTC has been forced to acknowledge, however, that once a licensed teacher is in a teaching position and has been granted qualified status, that teacher will have to be awarded conditional registration (Munroe, 1991).

Scotland has a period of teacher probation. Probationer teacher reports are submitted by the school's head teacher to the Council's Probation Committee which decides whether or not an applicant will be admitted as a fully qualified teacher. In its registration process, a certificate of registration is given to the probationer provisionally for two years. Once fully registered, a certificate of registration is awarded to a teacher on an annual basis.

Development of standards of practice is another activity undertaken by the GTC. All initial teacher education courses must be accredited by the Council. The accreditation is valid for five years. The GTC has an advisory function to the colleges of education, to which it reports on the professional training of future teachers. The colleges are not obliged to comply with the recommendations, but would soon realize that their graduates are not being accepted by the GTC for registration unless they implement the GTC's recommendations. This is a "back door route" to having the colleges comply. The Council's sanction lies in its ability to refuse registration someone who has undergone defective training. The Council is, therefore, listened to when it insists, for example, that student teachers be seen by a college before they enrol and that there be good quality school experience during training (Munroe, 1991). The GTC also has an advisory function to the Secretary of State for whom it advises on teacher supply and to whom it may suggest changes in teacher qualification. The Secretary of State is not required to accept the advice of the GTC, but will often accept the information to inform decision-making.

Both Forrester (1996) and Duncan (1996), commenting on teachers knowing about the GTC, recognize that while teachers would know about such a body, it would not be at the forefront of their minds. It is generally regarded as a "non-issue" except in April when their registration fee is deducted from their pay. Despite the best effort of the GTC, it does not have a high profile with teachers. Teachers, they believe, are more concerned with day-to-day life in the school and economic conditions, and do not have much time to think about educational policies. Many are not aware of what the Council does because it does not affect them directly in the classroom on a daily basis.

Government support for the GTC is limited. Initially, the GTC received about 10% of its funding from the Government but that was later withdrawn. Forester (1996) explains that the Council was not upset at the withdrawal of funds since it could be perceived that, if GTC received Government monies, it would be difficult to complete its responsibilities independently from the Government. Government involvement is limited to the four appointees by the Secretary of State, but nobody knows how he selects them (McIntyre, 1996). Generally, two appointees tend to represent the parents' interests. The Scottish office appoints two assessors to the Council: usually one has teacher certification and is a chief inspector and the other is an administrator, usually an assistant secretary. It is their responsibility to keep the Council on the right track in the area of legislation (Forrester, 1996).

The membership of this large Council attempts to encompass all aspects of education. Of the 49 members, 30 are elected by teachers, 15 are appointed by various groups, and 4 are nominated by the Secretary of State for Scotland. This, according to McIntyre (1996), provides a good mix. The Council reconstitutes itself every four years and there is a fair turnover of representatives.

The Future

The Commission of Scottish Education (1996) in its report Learning to Succeed in Scotland states that "an extension of the powers of the General Teaching Council should be considered in these areas: the continuing professional competence of teachers; professional development; the compulsory registration of FE [Further Education] staff; a wider range of

intermediate disciplinary sanctions” (p. 14). These issues have been discussed at GTC meetings, with the various teacher organizations and with representatives of the then Labour Opposition and Conservative Government (McIntyre, 1996). Sutherland (1996), in discussing the future of the Council, states that the council has authority in the post-probationary period that is related to discipline. One important area in which the GTC is not involved and over which other self-governing bodies have control is continuous professional learning. The Council has been campaigning for some time “to secure a formal locus in post-probationary activities” (p. 4) but has been to this point unsuccessful in its efforts.

The GTC is in a growth situation; the current location does not provide sufficient room for meetings and office space and, thus, it is examining sites in Edinburgh to acquire a suitable new location. A Professional Code for Teachers discussion paper has been brought forward for examination by the GTC.

The Council, along with the unions, is troubled about the limited remedial training available when there is concern about a teacher’s performance. Currently, there is no pressure on a teacher to upgrade. Pressure to improve is brought to bear when a teacher has been appraised, found to be deficient, and is required to make good that deficiency through further training. The obligation, then, lies with the employer to fund that training (Forrester, 1996). Back-up training that might assist a teacher is not always easily obtained. At the moment, the GTC has no locus in what tends to be a local matter. Even if acted on, this move would require legislative change. The two major unions, the SSTA and the EIS, would not be adverse to such change, but Duncan (1996) believes that some of the local authorities would not accept the idea readily. The

provision of additional training, he speculates, would enhance the status of the Council. This action would move the dismissal of teachers from the impossible to the possible. At the moment, the GTC involvement ends when a teacher has completed satisfactory teaching for two years as a probationer (Duncan 1996). The GTC wants to extend its accreditation practice to in-service courses so that all teacher education courses will be accredited.

The Relationship with the Unions

The role of the unions in Scotland is to support the members. Regulating the profession and establishing standards did not occur in Scotland before the Council was instituted because the unions did not have that power. The EIS is not opposed to the GTC being responsible for all the schemes of staff development and career review/appraisal. Forrester (1996) believes it should be the national coordinating body for that area of work. The difficulty with this proposal, aside from the legislative change required, is the cost. Currently, local education authorities are so impecunious that anything beyond the basic curriculum, and that includes staff development and appraisal, is beyond their means (Forrester, 1996).

There is no restriction that prevents an executive member from one of the unions from serving on the GTC. The Educational Institute of Scotland, like the other unions, runs a slate of candidates for election to the Council. Membership of teachers in the teachers' federations is optional in Scotland. "Initially, the federations did not run a slate. They later realized that if they wanted to have a major input [into the Council activities] they would need to have their members on the council and thus ran slates. The unions prepare a slate of approved candidates. They

publicize the election and let teachers know in no uncertain terms, [according to Forrester (1996)] who they should vote for.” The end result seems to reflect the balance that exists within the unions. The EIS, with 46,000 members, takes 10 out of 11 seats in the primary sector and the SSTA takes 6 out of 11 seats in the secondary sector with the EIS generally taking the remainder. On occasion, an independent teacher is elected. Forrester (1996) believes that the Council has never had a dominance of one particular union, although, certainly, the EIS does hold the majority of seats.

Regarding the council members and their union representation, Forrester (1996) and McIntyre (1996) believe that “they [the elected union teachers] leave their union hat at the door and wear their professional hat at the council”. It is Forrester’s opinion that seldom is anything forced upon the Council because of union policy. He concedes, however, that this may have happened a little before 1978, but believes it has not happened since then.

The unions, particularly the EIS, strongly support the GTC because “it is a protection in our view. The validation body for teacher training is the GTC ... [whereby the GTC] validates the programs and inspects ... and validates the courses (Forrester, 1996).

Sutherland (1996) recognizes that Scotland’s largest teachers’ union, the Educational Institute of Scotland, was concerned that the Council could diminish its control and power. This has not occurred since these unions are involved with teacher welfare, while the Council deals exclusively with professional issues. According to Sutherland (1996), the Council and the unions are in conflict at times, but, generally speaking, each respects the other’s position.

Discussion

The GTC is described by McPherson and Raab (1988) “as a microcosm of the fragmented system at large, and merely brought its tension under one roof” (p. 289). These writers believe that if the GTC were “to speak with an authoritative professional voice, it would require both a more deeply rooted unity outside than it enjoys, and more support both from its professional constituency and from the Department” (pp. 289-290). The SED has been reluctant to be very supportive of the GTC in the event that it would concede too much to the Council. Yet, the Department has found the GTC useful, according to McPherson and Raab. The GTC has performed the functions of probation, registration of teachers, and exceptional admission. This load-shedding effort was found to be useful by the Scottish Education Department because it ensured that teachers, and not the Department, would bear the cost for these activities. Stabler (1979) views the Council as neither a creature of the organized profession nor an arm of Government.

McPherson and Raab (1988) concluded—and are supported by Forrester (1996) and Duncan (1996)—that, for the most part, teachers view the GTC as irrelevant. Humes (1986) supports this finding through his research on the membership who vote for the governing council representatives during a nation-wide election every four years. In the early years, teacher response to electing members to the GTC declined dramatically from the election of the First Council (85%) to the Second Council (36%). Since then, the percentage of teachers voting has remained at approximately 33%. He concludes that teachers are not interested in the GTC

because so few vote in the elections. Despite the low turnout in elections, Duncan (1996) believes that the GTC is relatively well accepted by teachers.

The Council has attempted to improve that part of education for which it has responsibility. According to Munroe (1991), the GTC has probably made the greatest inroads in improving the circumstances of probationer teachers. A report by the Council in 1989 condemned the type of experiences that probationers received in which they were being shunted from one short term position to another that Munroe (1991) termed as “baby sitter” posts. The report demanded more valuable experience during the probationary period and for head teachers to look after probation in a better manner. In 1991, at the time of Munroe’s article, there were just over 5,000 probationers provisionally registered with the GTC. The GTC has tried to effect changes for the probationers by producing support and training materials in the form of print and video materials.

Many other successes are also noted. There are almost no unqualified teachers in Scotland, with an all-graduate profession. Teacher training has not been curtailed and teachers have a direct voice in teacher education. Subjects taught and teacher qualifications are matched in more than 98 per cent of Scotland's classrooms (Clarke, 1996). The teaching profession can ensure that local authorities maintain educational standards (Stabler, 1979). The GTC is consulted on standards of entry to the profession (Kirk, 1988). Kirk (1994) notes that over time the influence of the GTC has increased such that the Secretary of State regularly seeks the opinions of the GTC on issues related to teacher education. Stabler (1979) sees the GTC as a vehicle of communication among practising teachers and other relevant constituencies. He

recognizes that it exists as a statutory organization separate from the organization or union of teachers.

There is, however, no evidence that these achievements are connected directly with the higher achievement of Scottish schools compared to that of English schools. In 1988, more Scottish 16-year olds were in school or full-time education than in the remainder of the United Kingdom (Munroe, 1991). Government spending and higher unemployment rates may have contributed to these results.

The General Teaching Council for Scotland does not receive support from all quarters. Humes (1986) is quite critical of it. He cites Gethins, Morgan, Ozga, and Woolfe who write that not even the GTC's greatest admirer could say that the Council has accorded to teachers "equal 'partnership' status in the control of education"(p. 7). Gethins *et al* (1970), describing the Council's early days, conclude that it was not a "'watchdog' for the teaching profession, it often seems to act as 'a lapdog of the Secretary of State'" (p. 7).

Humes (1986) identifies a number of sectional interests and wranglings both within and outside the GTC. These include rivalries between the unions for seats on the Council, rivalries between the appointed and elected representatives, criticisms of the GTC by the colleges of education resulting in prejudices, and rivalry between members representing the same sector. Humes concludes that since these interests influenced the performance of the Council's members, they also assisted in undermining the Council's position in two ways. First, much energy was squandered on these skirmishes which, he believes, should have been directed at

policy issues and questions that affect the Scottish education system. Pursuing minor conflicts deflects attention from the important elements. The second way, he suggests, is more fundamental. The Scottish Education Department can pit various groups' interests against each other, creating opportunities for the Secretary of State to impose his agenda. By portraying himself as the one without a vested interest in a gathering of special interest groups, the Secretary can achieve what he desires. In 1994, Humes presented the GTC as a "tamed, manageable body which serves to give credibility to public policy by seeming to act as an independent forum in which professional views are canvassed and represented" (p. 53).

Twenty-five years after the introduction of the GTC, Munroe (1991) describes it "in theory, ... as the powerful guardian of fitness to teach, as every public sector teacher in Scotland must be registered with the Council" (p. 8). In fact, that is not always the situation. It has often been ignored by Government, as it was in the discussions to reduce the colleges of education from ten to five.

Has the Wheatley Commission realised its hope that the GTC for Scotland has evolved into "a body of great prestige and act as a main source of ideas and initiative over a wide field of matters of concern to the teaching profession" (Ingles, 1972 p. 13)? Forrester (1996) summarizes how the GTC is viewed: it "is a useful bulwark against central government and a protection against civil service interference in the profession". Duncan (1996) concludes that "had [the GTC] not happened when it did, I doubt it would have happened. There has to be political will." Munroe (1991) is not committing himself in answering this charge, preferring to say that "as far as the precise contribution of the GTC is concerned, the jury is still out" (p. 9).

The British Columbia College of Teachers

Background

British Columbia, the other jurisdiction which has a College of Teachers model, has a much shorter history than Scotland had many fewer participants during the developmental stage of its College of Teachers.

Sheehan and Wilson (1994) describe the teaching profession in the period between World War I and II as undeveloped. The Putnam-Weir Survey of Education commissioned by the Government in 1925, providing an assessment of British Columbian teachers, is cited by Sheehan and Wilson:

too many unmarried male teachers, the immaturity of the teachers, especially in rural schools; lack of vision and professional pride; deficient academic and professional qualifications, unwillingness to take additional professional training beyond the legal minimum; lack of experience; inability adequately to profit from experience; tendency to change schools too frequently (pp. 24-25).

To improve their status, the teachers formed a union, the British Columbia Teachers' Federation (BCTF), in 1917. For almost 30 years, it debated whether it should define itself as a trade union or as a professional organization. In 1943, it formally affiliated itself with the Trades and Labour Congress but broke with the TLC in 1956.

As in Ontario and Scotland during the post war years, the supply of teachers did not meet the demand. Teacher supply affected certification requirements since the departments of education were concerned with putting teachers in classrooms, thereby delaying the introduction

of needed extended training periods and more rigorous requirements for teaching certification. As in other jurisdictions, control over training and licensing of teachers in Ontario and British Columbia rested with their respective departments of education. Sheehan and Wilson (1994) argue that “this situation contrasted sharply with other professions in Canada, such as law, medicine and dentistry, where both education and self-regulation, were supervised by their respective professional bodies. ... Teaching in Canada had some way to go ...” (p. 27).

When the British Columbia College of Teachers was introduced, the political and educational situation in British Columbia was quite different from that in Scotland. While British Columbia had some uncertificated teachers, the situation was not identical to Scotland’s in the early 1960s. Bowman *et al* (1994) characterize the political environment in which the education system in British Columbia operated as “the most volatile of all the Canadian provinces. The political turmoil in education was exacerbated by conflict between a right of centre government (Social Credit) and a left of centre teachers’ organization” (p. 10). This view is supported by Nancy Sheehan¹¹ (1996): “there has been for some time a difference in ideology between Socreds and the teacher federation. The BCTF was fairly strong and a thorn in the side of the government.” Sheehan and Wilson (1994) continue:

For several decades and increasingly in the 1980s, the BCTF had an agenda which many have argued has been at odds with the agenda of the Government. Each approached education from a very different ideology resulting from growing antagonism between the two. It has been suggested with much plausibility that Bill 20 in creating a second body of teachers ... was intended as a way of undermining the control and authority of the BCTF. ... At the same time educational funding was seriously curtailed as part of government restraint. (p. 30)

¹¹Sheehan, Nancy. Dr. Sheehan is the Dean of the Faculty of Education at the University of British Columbia and an appointed member representing the faculties of education on the British Columbia College of Teachers.

“When this [the College] was created and the act was passed, the government was doing a fair amount of privatizing. ... This was privatizing teacher certification and discipline. [It was] taking it out of the hands of government and putting it [certification and discipline] in the hands of the profession. How much weight is credited to that [privatizing] is unclear” (Sheehan, 1996).

Bowman *et al* (1994) reached a similar conclusion, that giving responsibility for certification to the profession furthered a government end to privatize services. Kerchum¹² (1996) also views privatization as part of the reason for the creation of the College of Teachers: “[Bill Vanderzalm] was selling off parts of the government. Licensing and disciplining teachers were expensive for the government and so it was appealing to make teachers pay for it”.

Having been “conceived in secrecy” (Kerchum 1996) and without consultation with educators, trustees, or Ministry of Education staff, Bill 20, which became the Teaching Profession Act, was introduced in the Legislative Assembly. Indeed, fifteen minutes before it was introduced and tabled on April 2, 1987 in the Legislative Assembly, the Director of Teacher Certification Branch at the Ministry of Education was informed of its existence. At the same time, Bill 19, dealing with labour issues, was introduced. The Teaching Profession Act, creating the British Columbia College of Teachers (BCCT), was passed on May 19, 1987 (BCTF, 1987) and would become effective January 1, 1988.

The Teaching Profession Act addresses four major issues: bargaining rights, the creation of a College of Teachers, a new category of administrative officers, and dismissal for cause. It would amend the School Act and offer teachers the choice whether or not to unionize.

¹²Kerchum, Marie. Ms Kerchum was the Acting Registrar of the British Columbia College of Teachers.

Responsibilities of the College would include developing entrance standards, issuing teaching certificates, promoting professional development, and acting as a disciplinary body (Fris 1987).

Accusations from the teaching community arose, charging that Bill 20 would subvert union activities. In its Bill 20 Bulletin (April 16, 1987), the Ministry of Education quickly defended its position that the Government was not trying to undermine the BCTF:

In offering teachers the option of full rights as a union, however, the government recognizes that the duties of a union may at times be incompatible with the duties of a professional standards and disciplinary body. For example, a union is responsible for defending its members in grievances procedures dealing with incompetence and misconduct. The Teachers College, on the other hand will be responsible if it chooses to involve itself, for disciplining members for incompetence or misconduct after local due process has run its course, or if a complaint is filed against a teacher by five other College member. (p. 2)

The analysis provided by Bowman *et al* (1994) does not support the Government's position. These writers saw the Government as wanting to lessen the BCTF's power by eliminating mandatory membership in the Federation for all teachers in the publicly-funded school system. The Government attempted to split union and professional interests of the teachers assuming that a College of Teachers would be responsible for certification and professional development of teachers. Through legislation, principals and vice-principals were no longer members of the BCTF and had individual contracts with their employers. With these changes, membership in the BCTF was optional, but all certificated educators were compelled to join the College. "The move to separate union and professional interests of teachers had long been advocated by some highly placed bureaucrats who argued that teachers should follow the precedent set by registered nurses, lawyers, and doctors where such a separation already existed" (p. 10). Even though the BCTF condemned the exclusion of principals and vice-principals from

the proposed unions, a similar resolution had been effected some months earlier by the Principals and Vice-Principals Association Executive (Glegg, 1992).

Broadley¹³ (1996) explains why the College was created:

The Federation had taken the government to court using the Charter of Rights. Teachers in BC didn't have the right to bargain anything except salaries and bonuses. ... The government knew it was going to lose [its case] because the then deputy minister had come before examination-for-discovery on the charter challenge and left with a sense that they [the government] were in trouble because teachers didn't have bargaining rights.

In gaining bargaining rights, the “teachers are able to govern themselves and discipline [themselves], [so] we'll [the government] give it to them” Broadley (1996). The teachers had proven that they could deal with certification by the fact that three teachers from the federation, one representative of the superintendent association, and one representative from the Ministry of Education sat as voting members on the Certification Advisory Committee, along with three representatives from universities. This committee was established by the Minister of Education in the early 1980s (Broadley 1996). “Senior people in Ministry had the evidence that teachers could do the disciplinary function. The deputy minister was convinced and, I think, convinced others ... that teachers could handle this; that was the disciplinary part ... the bargaining part could be done by the Federation” (Broadley, 1996).

The move to change the School Act and the Labour Code through the introduction of Bill 20 angered the teachers, and they responded with swift and negative reaction. Frank Garrity, then president of the Canadian Teachers' Federation, urged teachers to “stand firm with their

¹³Broadley, Bill. Mr. Broadley is a past president of the BCTF and the first chair of the BCCT.

teachers organization in the face of the most monstrous legislation they have faced in the history of education in this country” (Knapp, 1987, p. 12). The teachers were urged to protest the new labour legislation, both the Industrial Relations Act and the Teaching Profession Act, to participate in a one day “study session” and begin their job action with a one day walkout (The Vancouver Sun, April 28, 1987, p. A1, B5, B9). After the strike, the teachers began “an instruction-only campaign” (The Vancouver Sun, April 29, 1987, p. A1).

Recognizing that the TPA was a *fait accompli*, the Executive of the BCTF met to make recommendations to the May Representative Assembly meeting. Bill Broadley (1996) recalls that “at that meeting, the BCTF made a decision to be part of election process and that decision caused a split at the executive level. Elsie Murphy, president of the BCTF, had recommendations for endorsing candidates. I made the motions at RA and continued to make motions until they were all passed.”

In December 1987, the BCTF established the Bargaining and Professional Right Task Force (BAPRTF). The central theme of its report was that “teachers should have a much greater voice in the governance of their profession, and in determining the conditions under which they would carry out their professional responsibilities” (p. 1). Three reasons were given explaining why the Teaching Profession Act (TPA) was unacceptable: the legislation was developed and introduced without formal consultation with BCTF representatives; the Act attempts to separate teachers’ professional concerns from their economic interests, viewed by the BCTF as complementary and not inconsistent; and the Governing Council would be directly accountable to its membership only at election time every two years. Although the College seemed

independent, in fact, the Task Force argued, the College would act as a provincial government agency, undertaking duties previously carried out by the Government with the costs transferred to teachers. While self-governance was desired by the teachers, this act did not give them what they wanted.

The BCTF responded to the legislation by establishing two processes. The first supported teacher-endorsed candidates in their bids for election to the college Council. To encourage teacher participation in the election process, Hutchinson (1987) exhorted teachers in the BCTF Newsletter that:

What is certain is, that the BCTF must field and support teacher candidates for the college board, committed to making it serve the interests of teachers in certification, teacher standards and professional discipline, discouraging a duplicate organization of indeterminate powers, at indeterminate cost and, as a consequence, weakening the BCTF. (p.2)

The BCTF election organizers in the zones and in local associations were to monitor to ensure that active teachers were registered to vote (BCTF Newsletter 27(2)). This strategy was evidently successful since all elected positions on the Council in the first election were filled by teacher-endorsed candidates.

Its second response was to establish a college advisory task force. In its report An Analysis of the Proposed College of Teachers, professional development, discipline, and powers of the Lieutenant Governor in Council were highlighted as problem areas. This task force believed that the Professional Development Committee had enormous powers with no clearly defined process to make it accountable for its actions or to be responsive to teacher needs. It argued that the possibility of the college's establishing its own large and costly professional

development division, competing with other professional development agencies including existing provincial specialist associations, would be detrimental. The task force had two concerns about discipline: multiple jeopardy and due process. Multiple jeopardy concerns arose from the fact that a member would be subject to four levels of scrutiny: the employing boards, the courts, the college, and the minister. The due process concern arose from what the task force perceived as a lack of safeguards in the legislation. The potential abuse of Section 43 of the Teaching Profession Act caused apprehension. That section states that “the Lieutenant Governor in council may make regulation ... on financial affairs and administration of the college; the performance of teachers and administrative officers and education matter generally. And the action may delegate to the minister the power to make regulations or issue guidelines respecting those reports”. The task force believed that this overriding clause allowed the Government to exercise wide control over the College’s affairs.

The responsibility of determining the process to establish the BCCT went to a three member committee, a supreme court judge, a member of the Federation, and a member of trustees’ association. The committee’s tasks included preparing a voters’ list for a fall election and supervising the election with the Government assuming the costs. All federation nominated candidates, most of whom had much experience in the BCTF either at the provincial or local district level, were successful. The Federation met with newly elected Council members and reviewed with counsel the Teaching Profession Act and the implications of each clause. Tony Brummet, Minister of Education, wanted to keep an arm’s length from the College and thus was very circumspect, according to Broadly (1996). The Minister issued an invitation to a coffee and dessert that he was sponsoring and was very clear that this was an opportunity to allow the

elected members and the appointed members to meet each other, and, just in case, the Council members wanted to meet the next day, he had his staff rent a meeting room for the next day in the hotel. It would be the Council's decision if they wanted to use it.

The Council did meet the next day (January 11, 1988); there was a sense among some members of the first council that the Government would not interfere with the college since the Government would want it to be successful (Broadley, 1996). Two initial decisions were made that would guide the College through its first year: 1) the position of chairperson was not to be a full time position, and 2) a steering committee would be established and be discharged in September 1988. The three committees mandated under the Teaching Profession Act were appointed--discipline, qualifications, and professional development. Until a registrar was hired, Bill Broadley occupied the positions of chair and registrar. The challenges to the College were seen as the establishing of the membership register, the handling of disciplinary proceedings, and the need to develop by-laws and policy in a number of areas.

Until the Council found its own office with Earl Cherrington, Director of the Teacher Certification Branch, and his staff provided advice and support to the College. There was concern that the College's first address was in Victoria at the Legislative Building. The College had to wait six weeks before the by-laws were enacted for certification, membership, and fees. Therefore, from January 1 until mid February 1988, no certificates could be issued. About mid-February, the college council met in Victoria to discuss certification and, realizing that additional support was required, hired an outside consultant to assist in establishing the College (office,

financial affairs, hired evaluators, etc.). In June 1988, Doug Smart began his duties as registrar. Within a six-month period, the British Columbia College of Teachers was in operation.

The Early Years

The object of the College, as outlined in the Teaching Profession Act, is “to establish, having regard to the public interest, standards for the education, professional responsibility and competence of its members, persons who hold certificates of qualification, and applicants for membership and consistent with that object to encourage the professional interest of its members in those matters” (p. 2). Thus, the first order for the newly-created College was to develop a process to ensure that the object would be fulfilled. This development would be accomplished by a Governing Council with 15 elected members and 5 appointed members. Each elected representative who is also a member of the College comes from one of the province’s fifteen zones determined for this process and serves a two-year term on the Council. Five others, who may or may not be College members, are named to hold office “during pleasure.” These five are appointed by cabinet (2), by the Minister of Education (2), and one is nominated by the education deans of British Columbia’s universities. The chair of the Council is elected by its members. These twenty persons take on the responsibility for the three statutory committees that deal with qualifications, professional development, discipline, and the task of starting the College.

The electoral process, while not established by the BCTF, ensured that early on the Governing Council was controlled by teachers, which could also be read as “controlled by the BCTF” since it had endorsed all the candidates who were elected. The College has powers

resident with other licensing bodies in that it can issue and remove certificates and discipline its members. Membership in the College is mandatory for all teachers, principals, vice-principals, directors of instruction, and superintendents employed by the public school system. Membership is also open to others who may meet the criteria laid down by the College, such as retired teachers, independent school teachers, and university faculty.

During the next several months many operational activities occurred. Each committee brought forward by-laws to govern its procedures and amended these as required. All by-laws and procedures involving hearings followed the UNESCO/ILO principles concerning the basic right of teachers. Although there was a waiting period required with the Ministry before the enactment of a by-law, none submitted during the year was disallowed.

The qualifications committee became active immediately. Since the legislation did not allow any phase-in period between establishing the College and assuming its powers and since there was an ongoing need to deal with new applications, the Council moved immediately to empower in the interim, a by-law allowing for the continuation of the existing criteria for certification established by the Ministry of Education.

At the time, Broadley described discipline as the area “we must move on. We have no procedures or by-laws in place; yet the Act directs school boards to inform the college regarding people who are dismissed in certain circumstances and, until we have by-laws, we can’t act” (Hinds, 1988, p. 8). The discipline committee’s first priority was to prepare by-laws respecting discipline matters. An extensive backlog of potential cases needed investigation, and the first

disciplinary hearing was scheduled for November. While the College was working on discipline by-laws and procedures, the Council discovered a “glitch,” as described by Hinds (1988), that could hamper the process. Under current legislation there are two ways that a complaint reaches the College: a report is received from the school board or a report is signed by five College members. If an individual is no longer employed by a BC public school district then one mechanism for filing a complaint is closed off. If five councillors signed the complaint, none could be involved in future investigation and hearing stages. The potential danger exists that a teacher convicted of a criminal charge could still teach in independent schools or in another province. The solution lay in a request for a legislative change to authorize the registrar to bring forward a complaint involving criminal conviction on matters regarding health and welfare of children. The registrar would report all such complaints to the College discipline committee. The discipline committee recommended an amendment to the TPA to allow the Registrar to bring forward to the Council complaints from sources other than school boards or five members, where the complaint relates to criminal activity or the health and welfare of children. This requested recommendation was sent to the Minister of Education with the amendment made by the Government in June 1988. The BCCT may cancel certificates for misconduct and may suspend certificates, including indefinite suspensions for incompetence and incapacity. It cannot, under current legislation, cancel a certificate for incapacity or incompetence.

The Professional Development Committee attempted to address the five major issues of ongoing professional development of members, accreditation of teacher education programmes, standard and professional certificates, the Royal Commission on Education, and the role of the College in the evaluation of members. The Council noted that while the Act gave some authority

to the College regarding professional development of members, it held the position that several current groups such as the British Columbia Teachers' Federation (BCTF), the British Columbia Principals and Vice-Principals Association (BCPVPA), the universities, etc., could best provide on-going professional development services and adopted at its March 17-18, 1988 meeting the following recommendations:

That the council of the college recognizes that professional development is an ongoing process and to that end the Council recommends that members take advantage of professional development programmes and activities provided by existing professional organizations and individuals.

That the college recommends that members of the college should join and participated in existing professional specialist associations such as those of the B.C. Teachers' Federation. (p. 18)

With these early motions, the Council sent two clear messages. First, the Council was not prepared to adopt parallel services or organizations as was possible under Section 27 of the TPA. This position of the College received recognition in the final report of the Royal Commission on Education. Second, it recognized the work that was being done by other agencies in providing professional development for members.

Staff was hired to evaluate certification and to complete tasks to get the College operational. Preparations involved acquiring an office, ordering furniture and equipment, hiring staff, and preparing for the move of the microfiche records and equipment from the Ministry of Education to the new office. The microfiche records included some 140,000 persons who had ever applied for a teaching certificate in British Columbia.

A budget of \$1,950,000 was set for the 1988-89 membership year. A Government grant of \$526,354.34 was provided through Bill 20 as government funding of the College. The Council unsuccessfully sought a legislative change to give the school boards authority to deduct the College fee by payroll deduction and remit it to the College. The Council unsuccessfully sought additional Government funding (\$117,000) to ensure an orderly transfer of responsibilities from the Ministry to the College and to guarantee an effective commencement of operation. However, as a result of the Government's initial grant, it was not necessary to charge fees for the 1987-1988 school year. The annual membership fee after the first year was established at \$50. By October 31, 1988 1,873 certificates were issued.

Sheehan and Wilson (1994) describe the first term of the Council as "difficult" since there was no North American precedent upon which to model or on which to rely and outline areas over which the College had control but lacked systems or by-laws. While the Council had authority over teacher certification, there was no system of control in place. The College had authority to approve the programs for teacher certification at the three universities, but there was no mechanism describing how the programs should be accredited. It had legislative authority over teacher discipline but no disciplinary by-laws or a system to handle new disciplinary cases or existing cases turned over by the Ministry. It had control over professional development but realized that the BCTF and the Provincial Specialists' Association of the BCTF had been active in providing professional development for some time. According to Bowman *et al* (1994), a surprise was found in the legislation related to the BCCT and the university. The Council had statutory authority for approving teacher education programs leading to certification and co-operating with the faculties of education in designing and evaluating their programs. This

authority and its implications were a surprise to both the Governing Council and the universities since the universities believed that as autonomous communities they should design and evaluate their own programs.

For many years, the BCTF lobbied for full bargaining rights for teachers, which had been granted in the TPA. Prior to 1987, the BCTF sought a teaching profession act granting teachers the powers and duties to govern themselves and with control over teacher certification, competence, conduct, and discipline. Glegg (1992) concludes that the BCTF objected mainly to the fact that these powers were granted to a newly-created body and not to established teachers' organizations. Glegg concedes that this position can be viewed one of two ways as: "an attack of the BCTF, which had been, by no means, reticent in its criticism of government educational policy, or as a recognition that it is difficult, if not impossible, for one organization to serve the public interest by overseeing the competence and conduct of teachers, and simultaneously to act as an advocate for those teachers and their legitimate personal and professional concerns" (Glegg, 1992, p. 51). Perhaps another view may be that the BCTF was upset that it was not the organization that had control of teachers.

In summary, in its first 6 months of operation, the College of Teachers accomplished much. It gave approval, on an interim basis, for pre-service teacher education programs, hired a registrar, rented office space, designed membership and service fees, developed a budgetary process, and established its statutory committees. In turn, the College dealt with questions related to membership and discipline and responded to Government, other educational groups,

and the public. In addition, when the College received complaints beyond its scope, it referred them to the appropriate agency or to the school district.

The next year of the BCCT saw a continuation of activities of the first year and also new activities taken on. Subsequent to its first meeting in 1989, the Council discussed or acted on the role of criminal records searches, received support for payroll deduction of fees by a majority of employing boards, instituted fees for service, and terminated membership or cancelled certificates of qualification for six members for either professional misconduct or for conduct unbecoming a member. A Communication Committee was formed to improve communicating with members and, to support this move, the BCTF made a regular column available in the "Teacher" Newsmagazine for use by the College. Changes allowing more flexibility in holding elections to the Council every other fall and removal of the restriction of length of service of the chairperson were approved. The initial estimate of the number of members of the College was 33,000 but 1989 membership was at 38,000, generating an extra \$250,000 in fees. The Government start-up grant had been expended and the College was now responsible for the revenue needed to conduct business.

In evaluating members, the College did not want to establish its own evaluation processes and chose instead to rely on the evaluation processes which had been contractually agreed upon. Interim approval was given to three universities for teacher education programs but the professional development committee would not approve any new programs until a review of teacher education was completed.

The Government had asked the College of Teachers to consider increasing basic teacher education to five years, review an upgrade of standard certificates to full degree status, and establish prerequisites to certification and renewal of certificates. The College's response was to establish a new standard that would be a minimum of four years post secondary education for certification effective January 1992.

The on-going activities in 1990 focused on issuing certificates of qualification, dealing with disciplinary matters, completing an initial set of by-laws, and reviewing financial, space, and human resources needed to operate with economy. In the second set of elections, 12 candidates were re-elected (8 by acclamation) and 3 new members were elected. Membership increased to 39,539, resulting in a reduction of the annual fee by 20% to \$40 (Report to the Annual Meeting 1991).

The qualifications committee that year considered and made recommendations to the Council in 68 appeals, in which 23 original decisions were upheld and 45 decisions were reversed or modified. In subsequent years, a large number of appeals were heard. While some favoured the applicant, the majority were upheld or modified. Suspension of certificate and cancellation of registration as activities of the discipline committee occurred and continue to occur to today. Depending on the number of cases heard per year the number of cancellations ranges from 6 to 10, which represents 0.019% to 0.024% of the membership with the reason for cancellation or suspension as professional misconduct or conduct unbecoming a member.

For several years after the establishment of the BCCT, the Teachers' Federation worked toward the repeal of, or changes to, the Teaching Profession Act. The "Draft Memorandum from the College Work Group on College Matters" asked in June 1990 that the Representative Assembly request legislative changes to the College that would limit its functions to certification and decertification issues, teacher education, and discipline; abolish duplicate membership structure; ensure a Governing Council with a 75% BCTF representation; and obtain full funding, from the Government, and not from the teachers, for college costs. The Assembly of teachers supported the motion.

By its 1990 annual general meeting, the BCTF Executive Committee had somewhat modified its stance and, as a result, its relationship with the BC College of Teachers as implementing "federation policies and procedures regarding the appropriate role of the college through working more closely with college councillors" (BCTF, 1990, p. 10). The BCTF met regularly with the 15 elected councillors of the BCCT to ensure that all members understood BCTF policies in specific areas. The BCTF recognized that the BCCT had avoided duplication of services, but wanted to ensure that that would continue. It indirectly acknowledged that the BCCT could be a permanent member of the broader educational community:

Nonetheless, the College, with fees from teachers and other members, has established its presence in the BC educational community. It is a member of the Educational Advisory Council and is invited to participate in other consultative bodies established by the government. The legislation provides for the possibility of the college's expanding its activities at any time.

A greater awareness by members is required to strengthen teachers' influence on the college, with increased emphasis on the need for legislative changes in the college structure to reduce its costs and limits its function. (p. 10)

For the next several years, the BCCT (1991) was involved in several appeals of Council decisions which were taken to court. A decision handed down in the Supreme Court of British Columbia in February 1991 quashed a decision to cancel membership and the certificate of a member because the court ruled that Council was not empowered to discipline the individual affected. Justice A.G. MacKinnon believed that the appellant did not deserve the severe punishment imposed. The Council appealed that decision and sought an expedited hearing on the question of jurisdiction. Meanwhile, a number of disciplinary cases that could be affected by Justice MacKinnon's decisions were on hold (BCCT, 1991, p. 8). Later, the Court of Appeal ruled that the College did have jurisdiction to review the certification status of individuals who had resigned from a school board. However, the Court of Appeal ruled that the individual, in this particular situation, should have been considered to have resigned his membership in the College and the College did not have jurisdiction over this individual. In a number of cases, individuals who had been under investigation or had been issued a citation for a hearing had resigned their membership in the College. This removed the College's jurisdiction to review individual's certification status and put these persons under the jurisdiction of the Lieutenant Governor in Council. The College sought and later received a legislative amendment to give it jurisdiction over former members in order to ensure that their certification status would be subject to review. This amendment, the College believed, would parallel the jurisdiction that the Law Society of British Columbia legislation (and on which the TPA is based), for example, has over former members.

Other activities occurred in 1991. The College continued its study of teacher education. There were some tensions because the universities were not accustomed to having teachers

coming in and making judgments on their programs (Kerchum, 1996). In a 10-month period, a total of 70 appeals were heard: 24 were successful, 19 resulted in some modification, and 27 were denied. Some by-law changes were made; included was the provision to relax some of the requirements for experienced teachers from outside British Columbia who did not precisely meet the academic criteria and teachers who had been out of teaching for a lengthy period of time and who might be required to undertake some updating. The College had issued 5,094 certificates, an increase of 33% over the previous year.

In October 1991, the BCTF presented to the Minister of Education a brief containing proposals for urgent action by the Government, which included the repeal of the TPA by changing the present College of Teachers and requiring that all BC public school teachers be federation members. However, since the Social Credit Government had more immediate problems with which to contend, there was no possibility of revoking Bill 20. The BCTF thus adopted a strategy of containment to restrict the impact of the College by electing endorsed councillors until there would be a more opportune time to ask for the repeal of Bill 20 (BCTF, 1991).

At the 1992 Annual General Meeting, the BCTF recommended that it again lobby for legislative changes in teachers' certification and the professional recognition of the BCTF. The Federation wanted the TPA repealed, statutory membership in BCTF of all public school teachers and a teachers' professional certification Council, without a membership structure, dealing with all teacher certification issues. The Council would be composed of 15 Federation and 5 Government appointees, and be solely financed by the Ministry of Education. This proposal

would not be acceptable to the Government because Bill 20 had been designed to divide the teachers' professional interests from their economic interests. The then Education Minister, Tony Brummet said that "the separation of professional and union responsibilities have remained paramount" (BCTF, 1992, p. 14).

The Report to the Annual General Meeting of the British Columbia College of Teachers in 1992 stated that, as a result of on-going review of the discipline procedures of the College (cited earlier) and as a result of a court case affecting another professional organization, significant changes were to be made to the discipline by-laws relating to the investigation process conducted by the College of Teachers. These changes stipulated that the teacher members investigated would be provided with all the information resulting from the investigations considered by the preliminary investigation committee making a decision on issuing a citation. While these changes would require greater investigation by the College prior to consideration by Preliminary Investigation Sub-committee, the College believed that this action would address a number of concerns and would ensure due process to members.

In the 1992 elections, 12 council members were elected by acclamation and 3 were elected through mail in votes. The courts had decided that indefinite suspension be ended and the College appealed. The College was successful in its appeal, thus allowing indefinite suspensions to continue (Report to the Annual Meeting, 1993).

By 1992, the initial review of teacher education programs at the three universities was completed. The BCCT dealt with the recommendations in one of three ways: they were given to

the BCTF to respond, approved in principle, or incorporated into by-laws. As part of the approval of the three existing programs, the College and the three universities agreed to an on-going collaborative process to address the criteria established by the Review. The College could now examine proposed teacher education programs at other universities, having sufficient criteria to determine if the programs would be approved for certification purposes.

The Council requested changes to the TPA in late 1991 to remove the powers of the Professional Development Committee as outlined in the TPA. It was the Council's view that the BCTF and other groups were effective and appropriate providers of professional development. In 1993, the Government agreed and substituted a Teacher Education Program Committee for the Professional Development Committee. Professional development for teachers in British Columbia was not separated from pre-service and as Sheehan and Wilson (1994) observed, "this has caused some discomfort among those who see teacher education as a continuum of pre-service, induction and in-service professions development" (p. 31). Conversely, the change in legislation also satisfied one of the complaints that the BCTF had against the creation of the College of Teachers.

Activities such as review of approved programs, participation in various conferences and meetings, and consultative meetings on various topics continued. The processes that a self-governing body undertakes (certification, accreditation, appeals, suspensions, reprimands, discipline, etc.) continued as part of its on-going tasks. The College developed by-laws to provide for a Developmental Standard Term Certificate. This certificate would require the completion of basic academic and teacher education acceptable to the College and either the

completion of a specified interprovincial trades qualification program or the completion of a First Nations program of studies. Collaborative discussions on the Developmental Standard Term Certificate were held with the BCTF, with the result that the Federation was able “to go along with” the College’s proposal even though the BCTF was opposed to separate categories of certification (Ross, 1996). There was a lengthy (two years) discussion on where student teachers could be placed for their major or final practicum. The BCTF argued that the major part of the supervised student teaching must normally be taken in public schools. The Independent Schools disagreed. Committees continued to develop policies on new and existing by-laws (e.g., English language proficiency testing for applicants where English is not the first language).

The Legislative Assembly amended the TPA, giving the College jurisdiction to deal with certificates of qualification of former members of the College and holders of Letters of Permission. The Independent School Act was amended to require authorities responsible for independent schools to report to the College, disciplinary action taken against persons holding College certificates and persons who resign their position where it is in the public interest to do so. Additional legislative change provided for Council elections in alternating years rather than all terms ending at one time. This means that elections are held every year for one half of the zones in the province. Other by-law amendments allowed the use of victim impact statements (Report to the Annual Meeting, 1993).

In 1992, the College developed A Statement of Professional Responsibility which resulted from a discussion regarding a Code of Ethics for members of the College. It began with the object of the College and continued with a statement in which educators acknowledge their

responsibilities:

It is the object of the College to establish, having regard to the public interest, standard for the education, professional responsibility and competence of its members, person who hold certificates of qualification and applicants for membership and consistent with that object to encourage the professional interest of its members in those matters.

Many of the College's members belong to organizations which have codes of ethics and other standards of practice. The College acknowledges that these are of value in providing standards of professional behaviour.

The purpose of the following statement of principle is to guide educators in meeting their professional responsibilities under the TPA.

Educators acknowledge their professional obligation to the well-being and educational growth of students. Educators shall behave in a manner which reflects credit upon the teaching profession. Educators recognize the public trust of their positions and respect the privileged nature of their relationships with students.

The College was required to respond to other legislation that would have an impact on its members. The Criminal Records Review Act makes a criminal records check mandatory for anyone who works with children or who may have unsupervised access to children in the ordinary course of their employment. The Ombudsman Act gave the Ombudsman jurisdiction over the self-regulated professions. The Freedom of Information and Protection of Privacy Act was extended to include self-regulating professions.

Current Status

The committees have fine tuned their processes. By way of example, the Discipline Committee has focused on the actual conduct of hearings: developing processes for appropriate parameters for cross-examination and the use of transcripts in hearings. There is a sophisticated

appeal process for those who are denied certification. There is a complete check on character, as mandated by the TPA, review of extensive confidential references, and a criminal record check, separate from the Government one (Kerchum, 1996).

Currently, if a teacher is given three unsatisfactory reports, the school board is to report this information to the College. The TPA allows for two types of judgments: professional misconduct and conduct unbecoming a member of a profession. The TPA does not allow cancellation of certificate on incompetence. If incompetence is considered professional misconduct, a hearing is convened and the hearing panel can determine whether there is in fact incompetence although judgment must be given by the full Council. It cannot terminate the membership and cancel the certificate; the only recourse is to suspend indefinitely. This permits for a rehabilitative course (e.g., improve teaching skills, enter a detoxification program, follow a prescribed course of study, etc.). The onus is on the suspended person to reapply which results in another hearing to present additional evidence.

New applications from one university (and denied June 1996) and three university colleges requesting accreditation for their teacher training programs are being considered by the College of Teachers at the time of the study. Other issues that continue from the College's earlier days include applying the Criminal Records Review Act, establishing an equivalency system for out-of-province applicants, meeting the spirit of the Agreement on Internal Trades (deals with labour mobility), determining how much academic course work is required in a degree for it to be accepted for professional certification, invoking Freedom of Information,

allowing for certification for teachers with technical background, and overseeing suspensions and dismissals. In the first seven years, the College acted on 66 certificates.

The Relationship with the Federation

The British Columbia Teachers' Federation is "an omnibus group" while the "union is the local association because that's where the vote is" (Broadley, 1996). The local units have been stripped of the rights to bargaining because British Columbia has provincial bargaining. This situation differs from that in Ontario which has local jurisdiction in bargaining. Broadley (1996) describes the concern of the BCTF "that the separate organization ... could be divisive in terms of the collective strength of teachers in the province in terms of political action and working against each other rather than with each other". From 1987-1995, each local was its own bargaining agent; provincial bargaining occurs now with the Federation as the bargaining agent for the approximate 75 agreements that exist.

The position of the Federation to the College has been one of clear opposition to the College. Five years after the Social Credit Government imposed the College of Teachers in an effort to subdue labour, a Globe and Mail report (1995) stated that "apparent indifference" had replaced hostility. The BCTF is still on record as seeking dissolution of the College. The Federation would replace it with an organization that would perform similar functions but one that does not require compulsory membership of teachers. They does not want "an alternative professional organization" (p. A3).

While the BCTF may still voice its original opposition to the College, it seems as if the “BCTF has stopped wishing that it [the College] would just go away” (Ross, 1996). There is recognition by some BCTF members that the College is now better than it has ever been. A BCTF College Advisory Liaison attends College meetings. The Federation has an endorsement process for those BCTF candidates seeking a seat on the Governing Council. Three times a year, the BCTF’s elected College counsellors meet with the BCTF staff and executive to discuss issues of common concern (Ross, 1996). Broadley (1996) describes the official policy of the teachers’ federation as “still in opposition to the existence of the college, but there’s much less discussion of that now at annual meetings. I think generally it’s been accepted, but not publicly.”

In general, even after the eight years that the College has been in existence, the British Columbian teachers do not understand the role of BCCT or have a frame of reference for it. When it began, the College assumed a low profile, thereby not being explicitly recognizable as a political organization when making public statements about social issues or political parties (Kerchum, 1996). Ross (1996) concurs and describes the College “as a non-event for teachers except when they pay \$40 membership fee or if they have a difficulty”. Teachers from out-of-province find the College an annoyance because they are required to conform to British Columbian standards.

Discussion

Kerchum (1996) describes self-regulation as a boon and a blessing. Teachers, for the first time, could determine how they themselves are certificated and how standards are maintained in the profession. They wrote the by-laws that they believed were clearly defined and teachers were affected by them. Since several were rewritten, the by-laws were not as clear as the Council members originally believed.

The College did not have a supportive framework or operating procedure other than the TPA. In the opinion of Marie Kerchum (1996), in hindsight, that was good because the College was able to forge its own direction: “The power was put in their hands and their job was to get on with it.” She summarized that there “is a delicate balance between ensuring that the person is treated fairly and the public interest is served”.

There is a belief, not substantiated by any documentation but alluded to by many writers, that the premier had hoped that the College would split the BCTF and that the teachers would form an allegiance with the professional body. Kerchum (1996) has suggested that it was not coincidental that Bill 19 was enacted at the same time.

Sheehan (1996) believes that the BCTF through its endorsement of specific candidates circumvented legislation so that the College would be controlled by the Federation. However, to their credit, the Council members realized that there were others than only BCTF members in the College and they had a responsibility to these members. There were some Council members who

in the past had argued strenuously in support of the BCTF stance, thereby reinforcing the perception that the College was BCTF directed.

A concern that Sheehan has identified related to the Council composition is that of balance, both gender and age. She hopes that this imbalance will correct itself and that as the College becomes more established there will be more desire and interest by women and younger teacher to become involved. At the present, "It looks too much like an old boys club" (Sheehan, 1996).

After a year of the College's existence, Broadley became convinced that both acting on behalf of the public and supporting the teacher member cannot be done by one group. It is a requirement of the Labour Code that the union acts on behalf of a member, therefore, it might be a conflict to act against a member on a disciplinary matter. He believes that the current legislation is better for teachers. It allows the Federation to protect their members' interests totally. "The College of Teachers is responsible for protecting the public interest in acting against members who ... behave in an unprofessional way. The separation provides a balance" (Broadley 1996).

The BCCT is seen to be effective if one considers the number of certificates that have been cancelled for conduct unbecoming a member or for professional misconduct. It has cancelled more certificates than the Ministry did when it had responsibility for that aspect of certification.

Professional development is generally directed by more than 20 Provincial Specialist Associations which have been in existence for more than 40 years. Broadley (1996) feels that the fact that the legislation allowed College to look after professional development ensures that Federation does do it.

According to Broadly (1996), the establishment of the College united the teachers. The Act provided for teachers the authority they sought: to determine what is required to become a teacher. The Teaching Profession Act gives more power of enquiry than the Federation had to investigate problems. While the Federation required the cooperation of people involved, the College has power to ensure that the information is obtained.

Bowman (1994) believes that from its beginnings, “the council followed a flexible, open and co-operative approach in consulting and working with the interested parties in teacher education” (p. 19). Sheehan and Wilson (1994), writing at the same time as Bowman, maintain that it is important that the BC College of Teachers successfully self-regulates by controlling certification and discipline. Failure may signify that teachers cannot direct their own affairs which, in turn, they believe, would be devastating to teachers, teacher education, and the profession generally.

Glegg (1992) believes that developing and maintaining high standards is essential if teaching is to be considered a profession. The College of Teachers has both the power and the responsibility to institute and demand high academic and personal standards for its members. He concludes that “if it uses its power wisely, and takes its responsibilities seriously, it could well

represent a major step down the road towards the establishment of teaching not only as self-governing, but also as a major profession” (p. 59).

Similarities and Differences

In all three colleges, the majority of counsellors are registered (i.e., certificated) teachers. Scotland has approximately 60%, British Columbia has 75%, and Ontario has approximately 55%. Ontario federations argue that the teachers do not have a clear majority. This argument can be interpreted as “Federation members” do not have a clear majority; Federations are reluctant to see the elected representatives of the supervisory officers’ associations, the private schools, and the faculties of education who hold Ontario Teachers’ Certificates as “teachers”. A further argument advanced is that two of these three representatives do not teach in a Junior Kindergarten to OAC level but are not in the classroom. Unlike the proposed model for Ontario, the BCCT allows retired members to be elected to the Council.

In Scotland, there is significant representation (approximately 40%) of other educational stakeholders and in the community at large to ensure that the Council serves the professional interests of both the teacher and the wider community. British Columbia has a much smaller public representation, with 25%, while Ontario has 45%. The BCCT can be criticized for what appears to be a direct connection to the Federation and a narrow public membership. The Royal Commission on Learning (1994d) stated that “critics of the British Columbia College assert that it is too directly connected to the British Columbia Teachers’ Federation, and would function more effectively if it had a more arm’s length relationship with the BCTF, and had a broader

membership base” (Vol III, p. 10). Ontario’s public membership base will be determined by the Lieutenant Governor in Council which should provide a breadth of expertise if the public members are chosen from a wide base.

The legislation of all three colleges assigns jurisdiction over key areas of self-governance. All have responsibility for accrediting pre-service courses for teacher training at the colleges of education. The accreditation process is carried out by elected and appointed members. Neither the GTC or the BCCT assumes responsibility for accrediting professional learning courses that teachers undertake after they have received their initial registration, since ongoing professional learning is not mandated as an object of the colleges. Interesting is the fact that the BCCT does not want jurisdiction over professional learning believing that other groups provide appropriate programs while the GTC is working to assume responsibility for professional learning in the post-probationary period. Ontario’s legislation outlines responsibility for professional learning after initial registration. Both the GTC and BCCT have developed processes for determining that teachers are qualified to teach in their respective jurisdictions which include submission of teaching qualifications from the applicant’s educational training institute and academic institution or university.

The accreditation process ensures that the initial certification of teachers is the responsibility of the profession. All the Colleges regulate admission to the profession, thus controlling the membership and, in effect, the behaviour of the members. Since all three keep a register of all qualified teachers, they can advise on the teacher supply available to the school system and should be aware of the demand for teachers.

The GTC and the BCCT are responsible for disciplinary issues within the profession, including suspension and decertification. Both the GTC and the BCCT have worked with teachers' federations/unions and other associations to receive input and to establish some of their policies and processes. While there are some areas in which the Colleges and the unions overlap and complement each other, overall they have quite distinct responsibilities and tasks.

The annual fees from registered teachers are used to support both councils. In both jurisdictions, the governments have decreased their own operating costs, with teachers paying for a certification/registration service formerly supplied by the government. While teachers resent paying for something that was free in the past, it is primarily the teachers who are the beneficiaries of their registration.

Neither the GTC nor the BCCT regards incompetence as sufficient cause for revoking registration until it has been resolved through the local authority's or school board's teachers evaluation and discipline process. At the Standing Committee for Social Development Hearing, Ontario's Bill 31 was amended to separate the areas of incompetence and incapacity.

Recommendations for both Ontario's and Scotland's Colleges were developed by committees established by their respective governments. The committees' recommendations were not binding on the government; however, many were incorporated into legislation. The BCCT did not have the same beginning and was required to set up without previous discussions about the College.

Both existing Colleges (Scotland and British Columbia) have had an effect on the profession of teaching as a whole. They have served the profession by ensuring that some teachers who should not be in classroom with children are not teaching in their respective jurisdictions. They have developed an accreditation process that assures both the student teacher and the public that the teacher training institutions have a minimum standard set and which, in the Scottish model, is reviewed. Teachers who are now registering with their Colleges must meet a set standard; this assures the public these educators who are teaching their children have met the minimum criteria.

Summary

This chapter has described two existing College of Teachers models each unique in its founding, early stages, and in some of its current activities. There are more similarities than difference: both the GTC and BCCT have a clear majority of elected certificated teachers on the Governing Councils, very much an issue in dispute in Ontario. Both are affected by mobility regulations and criminal checks. There are also areas in which the GTC and BCCT are dissimilar. Currently, neither has responsibility for on-going professional learning as one of its objects but it is one of the object of the OCT.

The Ontario teachers were asked to respond to the concept of the College of Teachers as it is described in Bill 31. The next chapter will describe the findings.

CHAPTER SEVEN
TEACHER RESPONSE TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE
ONTARIO COLLEGE OF TEACHERS

This chapter will report teachers' perceptions of the Ontario College of Teachers and the impact they believe it will have upon them. The chapter is divided into four sections: Ontario Teachers and the Respondent Sample; Response to the Ontario College of Teachers; Descriptive Analysis of the Items; and Scale Analysis, to report and analyse responses. It begins with a description of the sample.

Ontario Teachers and the Respondent Sample

The Directory of Education for 1993-94 was used to determine the breakdown by region for the selection of teachers to be included in the survey. However, the total number of teachers by school board and then totalled by region (112,336) does not match the overall provincial statistics on teachers. The 1993-94 Key Statistics Quick Facts report shows that 119,798 full-time teachers were employed in publicly-funded schools, which comprise public school boards and Roman Catholic (separate) school boards in both English and French languages of instruction. When the Directory of Education for 1993-94 was compiled, the total number of

teachers by school board had not been confirmed and therefore, the numbers listed in the Directory were estimates based on the previous year's confirmed numbers.

All teachers in publicly funded schools, regardless of panel (elementary / secondary), system (public / separate), or language of instruction (English / French), were eligible for inclusion in the sample. The data were gathered by a questionnaire circulated to 375 teachers randomly selected by stratification to represent teachers by region.

The survey sample was proportional to the teacher population with respect to region ($p = 0.9984$). Of 375 questionnaires distributed, 181 were returned of which 179 were usable for the study; this resulted in a response rate of 47.7%. Response varied by region from 66% (Western Ontario) to about 36% (Midnorthern Ontario) and, in general, the variance in the rate of response by region was not statistically significant ($p = 0.102$). The three northern regions (Midnorthern, Northeastern, and Northwestern) were collapsed for some aspects of the analysis into the Northern region and thus, in Table 2, are shown both as individual regions and as an aggregate.

Table 2
Description of Ontario Teachers and Numerical and Percentage Distribution
of Survey and Respondent Sample by Region

	Ontario Teachers		Survey Sample		Respondent Sample		Response Rate (%)
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	
Central	71,992	64.1	240	64.0	106	59.2	44.2
Eastern	13,862	12.3	46	12.3	22	12.3	47.8
Northern	10,647	9.5	36	9.6	16	8.9	44.4
Midnorthern	4,203	3.7	14	3.7	5	2.8	35.7
Northeastern	3,814	3.4	13	3.5	6	3.4	46.2
Northwestern	2,630	2.3	9	2.4	5	2.8	55.6
Western	15,835	14.1	53	14.1	35	19.6	66.0
Total	112,336	100.0	375	100.0	179	100.0	47.7

Source: Ministry of Education and Training Directory of Education 1993-94.

Information for all provincial statistics henceforth will be taken from 1993-94 Key Statistics Elementary and Secondary Education in Ontario. By panel, 74 per cent (54,420) of Ontario's full-time elementary teachers (73,540) were female, and 26 per cent were male. At the secondary level, 43 per cent (19,428) of the full-time teachers (46,258) were female and 58 per cent male. Provincially, 62 per cent of the teachers are female and 48 per cent male. Provincially, by panel, approximately 61 per cent of the teachers teach in elementary schools and approximately 39 per cent of the teachers are in secondary schools. There are some schools in which teachers instruct in both elementary and secondary panels and the survey allowed for teachers to report this information. However, there are no provincial totals for teachers teaching in both panels.

The gender composition of the sample is very close to that of the population ($p = 0.982$). The majority of the sample is female (60%), outnumbering the males (37%), which results in 1.6:1 ratio as shown in Table 2. The larger number of females than males in the sample reflects that there are more females than males in teaching. Thus the results can be expected to have a female bias, but that may also be consistent with other studies that have the female-male ratio of this study.

Table 3
Numerical and Percentage Distribution of Gender Composition
of Ontario Teachers and Respondent Sample

	Full-time Ontario Teachers		Sample	
	#	%	#	%
Female	74,541	62.2	107	59.8
Male	45,257	37.8	66	36.9
Not Reported	--	--	6	3.4

In the late 1960s and early 1970s, student enrolments in Ontario school increased rapidly requiring that many teachers be hired to meet the demand. However, in the following years, fewer teachers were needed with the result that fewer neophyte teachers were hired. Thus, the median age of the teaching population increased. In 1978-79, the median age of full-time teachers was 34.6. By 1993-94, the median age for this group had risen to 43.5. In the respondent sample, over two-thirds (71.6%) are 40 years of age or over and less than 10% of the sample is under thirty years old. Gender differences approach statistical significance ($p = 0.08371$) with slightly more females in the under 40 age groups, but this is balanced by more males in the older age groups. This is consistent with Smith's 1988 findings. The cycle of a

shortage and then a surplus of teachers has affected the age profile of teachers. This resulted in many teachers hired in the 1960's with few hirings in the 1970's and early 1980's. This resulted in an older teaching force with more years of experience than in 1950's and 1960's.

Table 4
Numerical Percentage Distribution of Respondent Sample by Age and Sex

	Female		Male		Not Reported		Total	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
20 - 24	1	0.9					1	0.6
25 - 29	5	4.7	4	6.1			9	5.0
30 - 34	20	18.7	6	9.1			26	14.5
35 - 39	11	10.3	4	6.1			15	8.4
40 - 44	20	18.7	13	19.7	1	16.7	34	19.0
45 - 49	26	24.3	19	28.8	2	33.3	47	26.3
50 - 54	24	22.4	15	22.7	2	33.3	41	22.9
55 - 59			5	7.6	1	16.7	6	3.4
Total	107	99.0	66	100.1	6	100.0	173	100.1

Note 1 : Totals in this and other tables may not total 100 % exactly due to rounding.

Note 2: Includes 6 respondents who did not report sex but reported age.

In additional tables, the age range is collapsed to 4 groups: 20 - 29, 30 - 39, 40 - 49, and 50 - 59.

Since most of the respondents have received their teacher training in one of two ways, a short discussion on how one acquires a teaching certificate is appropriate. Prior to the early 1970s, there were two usual paths a person could take to become a teacher. One was to select the elementary school route, where, with a minimum of Grade 13 (i.e., an undergraduate degree was not required at this time), an individual could complete one year at Teachers' College, receive an Interim Certificate, renewable one year at a time to a maximum of five years, and begin to teach. Generally, most teachers received their Permanent Certificate after two years of successful teaching and this entitled them to teach up to and including Grade 10. Although eligible to teach

in a secondary school for Grades 9 and 10, most of them taught in the elementary panel. The second path applied to those wishing to teach in secondary schools. An individual would complete an undergraduate degree, attend one year at a College of Education, be certificated, and be qualified to teach Grades 9 to 13.

In the mid 1970s, the current process for teacher certification was introduced in Ontario. The consecutive program allows candidates, after completing an undergraduate degree, to spend a minimum of one year at a Faculty of Education preparing for their profession before receiving a Bachelor of Education degree. In the concurrent program, teachers candidates work towards completing an undergraduate degree while completing studies for a Bachelor of Education degree. For both programs, the Ontario Teacher's Certificate was, at the time of the study, awarded by the Ministry of Education and Training on the recommendation of the Faculty of Education. This applies to all who seek an Ontario Teacher's Certificate, although there are some exceptions.

Although the process for acquiring an Ontario Teacher's Certificate outlined above is the usual manner that an individual seeking to teach in this province would follow, there are other certificates that may be acquired that permit a person to teach in Ontario's classrooms. A Permanent Letter of Standing is given to individuals who have a specialization in a particular area (e.g., Native Language) but do not have a university degree. This teacher may teach only in that particular area. The Letter does not lead to an Ontario Teacher's Certificate, except with additional course work and a year of teacher training. A Temporary Letter of Standing is given to a teacher certificated outside the province through a training program considered acceptable to

the Ministry of Education and Training in Ontario. To convert the non-Ontario certificate to an Ontario Teacher's Certificate, the teacher must teach a minimum of 200 days and be inspected either by the Ministry of Education and Training or the superintendent of the school board.

The overwhelming majority of respondents have an Ontario Teacher's Certificate (OTC) (96%). Three respondents hold a Permanent Letter of Standing, one has a Temporary Letter of Standing.

Table 5
Numerical and Percentage Distribution of Teaching Qualifications

	# of cases	% of cases
Ontario Teaching Certificate	172	96.1
Permanent Letter of Standing	3	1.7
Temporary Letter of Standing	1	0.6
Not Reported	3	1.7

Note 1: 3 respondents did not include this item of information

It is evident from Table 5 that with three-quarters of the respondents (75.7) in the elementary sector and about one-fifth (21.32%) in secondary schools, this sample does not represent the distribution in the province as a whole. In addition, four persons have identified themselves as teaching in both panels. The secondary school teachers are significantly under-represented ($p < 0.00001$). Since there is a greater response proportionally from elementary teachers than from secondary teachers, it is expected that there will be a bias favouring elementary teachers. Historically, there have always been more women teaching in the elementary panel and more men in the secondary panel. In recent years, however, a shift has begun which is more dramatic in secondary education than in elementary education. In 1980-81, only 30 per cent of the teachers in secondary schools were women; by 1993-94 that figure

increased to 43 per cent. The fact that there are more elementary teachers responding to this survey should not be surprising since they are in greater number. Since these (female, elementary) may have significant influence on the variables, they have been used throughout for cross tabulation.

Table 6
Numerical and Percentage Distribution of Sample Respondents
and Ontario Teachers by Panel and Sex

Panel	Respondents						Ontario Teachers					
	Male		Female		Total		Male		Female		Total	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
Elementary	43	32.6	85	64.4	128	75.7	19,120	26.0	54,420	74.0	73,540	61.3
Secondary	21	55.3	15	39.5	36	21.3	26,830	58.0	19,891	43.0	46,258	38.6
Both	1	25.0	3	75.0	4	2.4	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Total	65	37.4	103	59.2	169	99.4	45,950	38.3	74,311	62.0	119,798	99.9

Note 1: Does not include 6 respondents who did not provide information on sex.

Note 2: Does not include 5 respondents who did not provide information on panel.

The letter to the principal of the school outlining the survey requested that one teacher from the school complete the questionnaire. This educator, qualified to teach in Ontario, was to be selected from the alphabetized staff list using the random number generated for that particular position on the alpha list. This request resulted in not only full-time classroom teachers being eligible for inclusion, but also department heads and assistant department heads, librarians, principals, vice-principals, etc. If this alpha list included part-time teachers, they were also eligible as respondents. Part-time teachers were included since anyone who is certificated to teach in Ontario would be eligible for membership in the Ontario College of Teachers and anyone wishing to teach in Ontario or assume a position of added responsibility must be registered with the College.

Ontario's teaching force is comprised of a number of different categories, all of whom must be qualified to teach in the province's publicly funded schools. In 1993-94, 79 per cent or 94,640 were classroom teachers. Principals and vice-principals represented 7 per cent; 8 per cent were department heads, and 6 per cent were teachers who had other duties such as guidance or library (Ministry of Education and Training, 1996). Department heads, along with their teaching duties, have responsibility for particular subject areas in secondary schools. In schools where there is a teacher-librarian, this person is first qualified as a teacher.

Classroom teachers (82.1%) represent the vast majority of respondents as shown in Table 7. The sample also included 14 principals, 3 vice-principals, 9 department heads, and 3 assistant department heads. The differences between the sample and population are marginal and are not statistically significant ($p = 0.689$).

Table 7
Numerical and Percentage Distribution of Ontario Teachers
and Respondents by Current Position

	Ontario Teachers		Sample	
	# of cases	% of cases	# of cases	% of cases
Classroom Teacher	102,796	85.8	147	82.1
Dept. Head/Assistant	9,147	7.6	12	6.7
Principal/Vice Principal	7,855	6.6	14	7.8
Not Reported	--	--	6	3.4

Note 1: Included are 4 librarians in classroom teacher category in the sample.

An undergraduate degree, as indicated earlier, was not required to receive an Interim Certificate in order to teach in the elementary panel. As a result, many teachers in elementary schools did not have an undergraduate degree when they began their teaching careers, and if they did acquire one, they often participated in university continuing education programs at night

school, summer school, in correspondence courses, etc. By 1993-94, in Ontario, 79 per cent of elementary school teachers and 94 per cent of secondary school teachers were university graduates; the provincial average is 84.7 per cent. Approximately 14 per cent also held a graduate degree.

A Bachelor's degree, other than in Education, as defined for the survey, includes all degrees given at the baccalaureate level. Since the prerequisite to acquire a Bachelor of Education (BEd) is an undergraduate degree (or an undergraduate degree earned in a concurrent program), it is recognized that all respondents who indicated they have a BEd also have undergraduate degree. Accepting this premise, one recognizes that over three-quarters of the sample have a minimum of a Bachelor's degree, either in education (49.7%) or arts/science etc. (25.5%). Considering that those who have graduate degrees also have undergraduate degrees, 95.5 per cent of the sample are university graduates. This is significantly higher than the provincial average. Almost one quarter of respondents have completed the Master's level in either education (19.1%) or arts/science etc. (3.8%), or the doctoral level (1.9%) totalling 24.8 per cent. This too represents a higher percentage than the provincial average. Thus it can be concluded that the respondent group is more highly educated than the teaching force in general.

Table 8
Educational Qualifications of Respondents

	# of cases	% of cases
B.A.	45	25.1
B.Ed.	81	45.3
M.A.	6	3.4
M.Ed.	36	20.1
Ph.D.	1	0.6
Ed.D.	2	1.1
Not Reported	8	4.5

Table 9
Educational Qualifications by Panel, Position, and Sex

	Elementary				Secondary				Total	
	Teacher		Other		Teacher		Other		#	%
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F		
BA	7	20	1	2	4	3		3	40	25.5
BEd	13	41	1	3	10	4	2	4	78	49.7
MA	3	1			1	1			6	3.8
MEd	8	9	5	2	1	3	2		30	19.1
PhD,EdD	2	1							3	1.9
Total	33	72	7	7	16	11	4	7	157	100.0

Note 1: Other refers to anyone with a position of added responsibility.

Note 2: Excludes any respondent who did not provide information on panel, position, or sex.

Note 3: Does not include teachers who responded to Both for panel.

In addition to their professional and academic qualifications, teachers have been involved in professional learning. During the 1992-93 school year and in the summer, Ontario teachers completed 29,785 courses to acquire additional qualifications. The respondent group was asked to report their own professional learning by indicating Additional Qualification Courses (AQ's) acquired and other professional learning activities in which they engaged in the 1995-96 school year when the survey occurred. AQ courses consist of two types. The first is a one-session course, for example, an additional basic qualification in which the candidate was initially not qualified to teach such as the Junior Division. The second consists of a three-part program leading to a Specialist Certificate. These are in-depth programs in a specific area of study (e.g., Special Education, Cooperative Education, Religious Education, Arts visuels, etc.). These courses not only provide for professional learning, but could also be used to move to a higher category levels which results in increased remuneration. Thus, both professional learning and financial reward are motivators for teachers taking these courses and other courses that apply.

Those who responded to this question listed a total of over 770 AQ courses taken. Not only do they include the ones listed above, but also Guidance, Reading, School Librarianship, Études informatiques - Ordinateur, Senior English, Music, Design Technologie, Primary Education, Social Studies, etc. Other professional learning activities, many of which were as intensive as the AQ courses, included Education Through Music, Crisis Intervention and Suicide Prevention, university courses, Ontario College of Art, Introduction to the Internet, etc.

Professional learning activities in which they engaged in the past year that related to their professional work included all types of courses in curriculum writing, university courses, leadership, nutrition, classroom discipline, Internet, etc. Not all activities centred on “taking courses.” Others reported “reading numerous books, using the Common Curriculum more effectively in unit planning, conferencing with peers,” “upgrading home computer and getting on-line,” subject group meetings, etc. Some instructed in courses and provided workshops as part of their professional learning activities. The question becomes “With all the additional learning that teachers are undertaking, is the teaching in the classroom better?” That requires another study. One characteristic that can be determined in general from the survey population is a desire to remain current in teaching. Remaining current was often accomplished by taking courses that teachers believed would directly assist their classroom practice or fulfillment of other responsibilities. From this information, it can be concluded that the respondent sample is actively engaged in professional learning.

At the provincial level, about half of the full-time teachers had more than 15 years teaching experience. The median teaching experience for 1993-94 is 16 years. It must be remembered that the provincial figures are two years behind the statistics that are being garnered from the survey.

This is a highly experienced sample of teachers. Respondents have been teaching from 1 to 34 years, an average of 18.3 years and a median of 20 years. The average of the 176 respondents who worked full-time is 17.1 years with a median of 19 years. Allowing for the fact that provincial statistics are not current, this sample is more experienced than the provincial teachers. One respondent has taught on a part-time basis only. Gender differences in full-time teaching are statistically significant ($p = 0.01726$), with males having slightly longer experience (mean years for males = 19.3, females = 15.6). This discrepancy can be explained, in part, by the fact that most women will take time from work to raise a family at some point in their careers.

The educators were asked to indicate number of years in part-time or contract teaching. The vast majority have no part-time teaching experience, but 49 respondents (27%) have had such employment. About half of them taught for 1 to 2 years and a quarter for 3 or 4 years. For those who have done so, the average number of years in such employment was 4.5 and the median was 3. More women than men have taught on a part-time basis and women average a greater number of years teaching part-time (1.6 vs. 0.5, $p = 0.011$). This difference can be explained, in part, by the fact that women often find part-time work to their advantage since it provides them with time both to raise a family and to teach. It may be further explained that teachers will often begin with part-time work and later will gain a full-time position.

“Go west, young man” is an adage implying that one should seek experience (or as Horace Greely believed, seek fortune) beyond the borders of one’s confines. A number of respondents (24), representing 13 per cent of the sample, have done that in pursuing teaching experience outside of Ontario. This experience ranges from 1 to 17 years, averaging 3.7 years with a median of 2 and a standard deviation of 4.1 years. There are no gender differences with respect to years of teaching outside Ontario.

Table 10
Numerical and Percentage Distribution of Teaching Experience
Full-time, Part-time, and Outside Ontario (in years) by Sex

	Male		Female		Not Reported		Total	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
Full-time								
0	1	1.5					1	0.6
1 - 5	7	10.6	12	11.2			19	10.6
6 - 10	6	9.1	33	30.8			39	21.8
11 - 15	6	9.1	11	10.3	3	50.0	20	11.2
16 - 20	16	24.2	13	12.1	1	16.7	30	16.8
21 - 25	12	18.2	12	11.2	1	16.7	25	14.0
26 - 30	11	16.7	19	17.8			30	16.8
> 30	7	10.6	5	4.7	1	16.7	13	7.3
Not Reported			2	1.9			2	1.1
Total	66	100.0	107	100.0	6	100.1	179	100.2
Part-time								
0	55	83.3	70	65.4	3	50.0	128	71.5
1 - 2	6	9.1	17	15.9	1	16.7	24	13.4
3 - 4	4	6.1	8	7.5			12	6.7
5 - 6			5	4.7			5	2.8
> 6	1	1.5	5	4.7	2	33.3	8	4.5
Not Reported			2	1.9			2	1.1
Total	66	100.0	107	100.1	6	100.0	179	100.0
Out of Ontario								
0	57	86.4	93	86.9	5	83.3	155	86.6
1 - 2	5	7.6	7	6.5			12	6.7
3 - 4	3	4.5	4	3.7			7	3.9
> 4	1	1.5	3	2.8	1	16.7	5	2.8
Total	66	100.0	107	99.9	6	100.0	179	100.0

Note 1: In additional tables, full-time teaching experience may be collapsed to 3 groups: ≤ 15 , 16 - 25, ≥ 26 .

The survey requested the teachers to indicate the number of years in another occupation(s) prior to teaching. The intent of the question was to determine the respondents' other occupation(s), if any, before they entered teaching. There was no stipulation stating what type of employment this would include and, therefore, some of the respondents may have included summer employment as university students. However, given the findings as outlined below, it may be assumed that few included summer employment. Sixty-five respondents (36.3%) worked in other occupations prior to becoming teachers.

Table 11
Other Occupation Prior to Teaching

	# of cases	% of cases
Yes	65	36.3
No	112	62.6
Not Reported	2	1.1

Those who held another occupation prior to teaching are found disproportionately within the cohort who have between 16 and 25 years of full-time teaching (that is, they started teaching between 1972 and 1980), and are under represented among those with both less and more teaching experience ($p = 0.00764$). That specific period between 1972 - 73 and 1980 - 81 was a time of declining enrolment in the province's schools. The Commission on Declining Enrolment in its Interim Report (1978) noted that the number of births recorded began to decline most dramatically in 1965 and continued for the next 10 years, with projections for continuation for at least five more years. The births decreased from 152,729 (1964) to 141,610 (1965). From 1965 to 1975, the cumulative effect of this decline totalled 330,088. Had the decline not happened, that number of children would not have entered school all at the same time but would have increased the school enrolment approximately 27,000 to 35,000 on a yearly basis and, once

registered, would likely remain for 12 to 14 years. The teachers who could have begun to teach in early 1970s were not finding teaching positions. Because of contractual obligations, school boards that could not release teachers easily would reassign them; school boards simply did not hire many teachers in those years. This demographic also affects the increase of the average age of teachers on an annual basis (i.e., teachers are getting older). "This change in the fertility rate was so dramatic that it caused an absolute reversal of enrolment in the elementary sector. The change in total numbers began in 1971 although the decreases in lower grades appeared much earlier" (p. 102). The effects of this decline began to be felt in the secondary schools generally in 1978.

Since a number of the respondents had other experience, it is believed that this would have an impact on their views. Therefore, "other experience" was also used for cross tabulation purposes.

Table 12
Years of Full-Time Teaching by Other Occupation Prior to Teaching

Years of Full-Time Teaching	Other Occupation Prior to Teaching			
	No		Yes	
	#	%	#	%
≤ 15	49	43.8	30	46.2
16 - 25	28	25.0	27	41.5
≥ 26	35	31.3	8	12.3
Total	112	100.0	65	100.0

There is no significant age difference between those who had and those who did not have another occupation prior to teaching ($p = 0.68222$)

Table 13
Age by Other Occupation Prior to Teaching

Age	Other Occupation Prior to Teaching			
	No		Yes	
	#	%	#	%
20 - 29	8	7.1	2	3.1
30 - 39	26	23.2	15	23.1
40 - 49	49	43.8	32	49.2
50 - 59	29	25.9	16	24.6
Total	112	100.0	65	100.0

Summary

The study group has some distinctive features that make it different from the average group of teachers. The education level is higher than the provincial norm, and therefore the sample teacher group can be expected to have a high level of expertise. Generally, they are committed to professional learning, as evidenced by the wide range of learning activities in which they have participated since completing their baccalaureate and teacher education programs. In addition, this sample does not represent the distribution pattern of the province in the elementary and secondary panels.

The next section outlines the response of the sample group to the proposed model for the Ontario College of Teachers.

Response to the Ontario College of Teachers

Fifteen months have passed since the announcement to establish an Ontario College of Teachers (OCT) (February 1995) and the time of this survey (May 1996). Educator response is important to know since generally this type of information helps to determine the success of a program. It would be useful in developing an implementation strategy. It could help isolate factors that would predict success or failure of a program. Teacher response will also show the relevancy of a program in teachers' lives and how they may be influenced by it. Chapter 5 (pp. 143-144) reported the results of how teachers received their information about the College of Teachers. Both media and federations were found to be the major sources of information. Often it is assumed that teachers are more strongly influenced by their federations than by any other source of information. In isolating the federation and media as factors influencing teachers, the following results were noted.

Those who used the media exclusively were more receptive to this concept of a College of Teachers than those who used Federation only or the group that did not use either media or Federation for information. Approximately 38 per cent of media-only informed teachers supported the idea as opposed to 15 per cent of Federation-only informed teachers. This difference is also noted on the opposition to the College: 67 per cent of teachers who relied solely on Federation for information versus 52 per cent of the teachers who used the media exclusively. This raises the question of the influence that the Federation information has on teachers and it can be suggested, although further study would be required, that the Federation has a significant influence on teachers. This conclusion seems reasonable given the volume of materials that sent

to schools from Federations and the extensive network of school representatives and local units that the Federations have.

Table 14
Current Response to the College Concept by Source of Information (%)

	Neither	Federation Only	Media Only	Federation and Media
Highly In Favour			10.3	2.0
Somewhat In Favour	23.8	14.8	27.6	18.8
Undecided	19.0	18.5	10.3	15.8
Opposed	28.6	37.0	27.6	25.7
Strongly Opposed	28.6	29.6	24.1	37.6
n	21	27	29	101

When those who received their information from only the Federation(s) or the media only were tallied, 15.1 per cent of all the respondents used the Federation exclusively and 16.2 per cent used the media exclusively.

Table 15
Current Response by Source--Federation or Media Only (%)

	Federation Only	Media Only
Favour	14.8	37.9
Undecided	18.5	10.3
Opposed	66.7	51.7
n	27	29

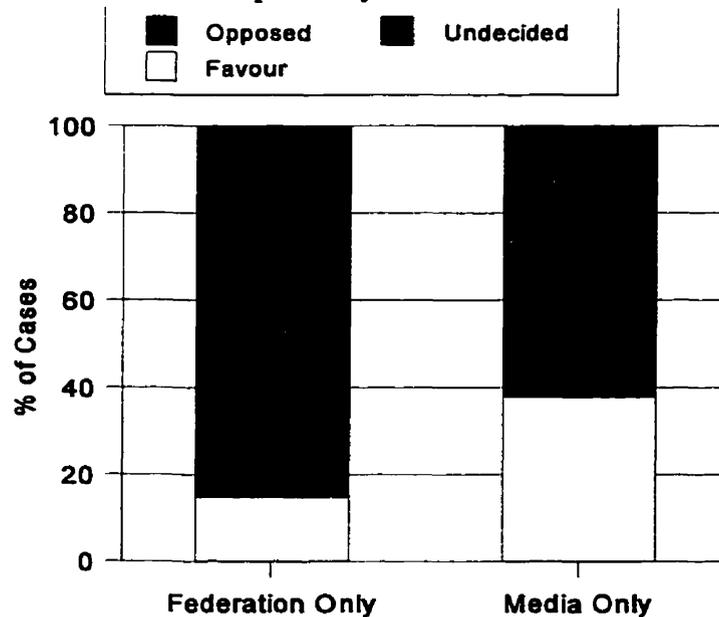
Those who used the Federation(s) as one of the sources of information were somewhat more favourable to the idea of the College and what they understand about it than those who used only the Federation(s) as a source of information.

Table 16
Current Response by Teachers' Federation as Source of Information (%)

	Teachers' Federation a Source of Information	
	No	Yes
Favour	32.0	19.5
Undecided	14.0	16.4
Opposed	54.0	64.1
n	50	128

In summary, as shown in Figure 1, respondents whose source of information about the OCT proposal was the Federation, as compared to the media, are less supportive (15% versus 38%), more opposed (67% versus 52%) and somewhat more indecisive (19% versus 10%). However, as interesting as these differences are, they are not statistically significant.

Figure 1
Current Response by Source of Information



Teachers were asked, “What is your initial response to the concept of having an Ontario College of Teachers?” followed by “What is your current response to the concept of having an Ontario College of Teachers?” Each respondent was asked to circle the selected response from a 5-point Likert scale ranging from “highly in favour” to “strongly opposed” with “undecided” as the mid-point.

Initially, about one third of the respondents were undecided about the OCT. These (34.6 %) were adopting a wait-and-see stance and could be influenced by further information and developments. A higher proportion were opposed than were in favour (36.9% versus 28.5%). By the time of the survey, only some 19 had changed their response in a more favourable direction and 75 had moved in a less favourable one. The neutral group had moved from 62 to 28 and 84 retained their initial opinion. Clearly, opinion was hardening against the proposed College.

Table 17
Frequency Distribution of Initial and Current Response to OCT Concept

	Initial Response		Current Response	
	#	%	#	%
Highly Favour	18	10.1	5	2.8
Somewhat in Favour	33	18.4	36	20.2
Subtotal	51	28.5	41	23.0
Undecided	62	34.6	28	15.7
Opposed	31	17.3	50	28.1
Strongly Opposed	35	19.6	59	33.1
Subtotal	66	36.9	109	61.2
Total	179	100.0	178	100.0

In the comparison of the initial and current responses presented graphically in Figure 1, the current response side has formed higher peaks representing opposed and strongly opposed. This represents a highly statistically significant change in perception of the OCT concept ($p < 0.00001$, Wilcoxon-Matched-Pairs Signed-Ranks Test). If teachers continue to be opposed and strongly opposed to the College of Teachers, the Governing Council would find itself constantly explaining itself and the decisions that it makes.

In order to counteract this change of teachers toward the College, the College will need to be especially diligent in its early days so that the response is not similar to that of the teachers in Scotland and British Columbia. If it is the Federation's intent to work toward the demise of the College from either with the organization of the College or from outside, it must continue to keep this in the forefront of teachers' minds.

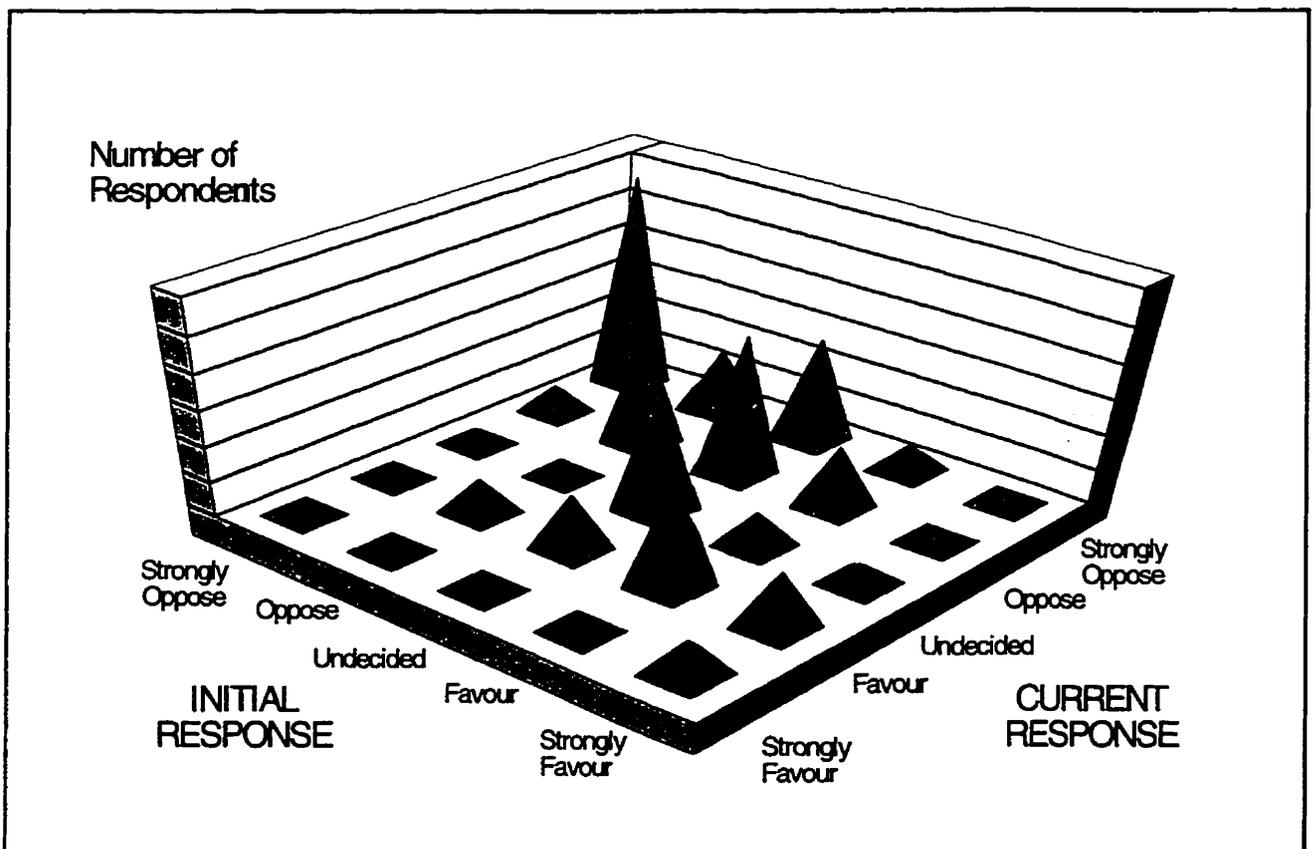


Figure 2: Initial and Current Responses to OCT Concept

The change becomes even more apparent if the current opinions are plotted against initial responses (see Table 18).

Table 18
Current by Initial Response (% , n = 178)

Current Response	Initial Response					Total
	1 Highly In Favour	2 In Favour	3 Undecided	4 Opposed	5 Strongly Opposed	
1 Highly In Favour	2.8					2.8
2 In Favour	4.5	8.4	4.5	2.8		20.6
3 Undecided	1.7	2.8	10.1	0.6	0.6	15.7
4 Opposed	0.6	5.1	11.2	9.0	2.2	28.1
5 Strongly Opposed	0.6	2.2	8.4	5.1	16.9	33.1
Total	10.1	18.5	34.3	17.4	19.7	100.0

In summary, the majority of the initially opposed respondents remained in their original position and more than half of the undecided moved toward opposition. What caused teachers to change their opinion on the OCT? Unfortunately, the majority did not specifically answer this question. Instead they stated what they liked or disliked about the college which may have been the reason why they changed their stance. To report respondents' explanations for their changes from initial to current opinion, the following format is used. First, there is a general discussion of the reasons which were offered. This is followed by a section noting the specific concerns reported on the survey, outlining in their personal practice as teachers the likely positive and negative aspects of having an OCT and, in their professional practice, the likely positive and

negative aspects of having an OCT. These sections which report the respondent sample as a whole are then followed by three profiles of those currently favourable to the concept, those still undecided, and those opposed. The intent of these sections is to create a profile of the three groups and to summarize their views.

General Discussion of Reasons for Changing Position

In explaining how the change from initial response to current occurred, the respondents offered the following reasons that influenced their decision: they received more information by reading materials that were available, by discussing with colleagues, by reading Bill 31 (1 respondent), or by finding that the initial information presented was very vague.

Others, in explaining why they changed their opinion, presented arguments for and against the College. Support for the College centres on the College's ensuring that there be "progress and maintenance of quality educators," that a "body independent of the federation" be established, and that there will be "some value for the teaching profession." Some teachers believe that it "may cut down on teachers looking for jobs."

In several instances, the responses showed both support for and opposition to the idea, in some cases, evincing a wait-and-see attitude. One was "not sure it will undermine the teaching profession," and another was opposed, but will "have to trust that it will not be detrimental to the teaching staff." A third commented that it is "an excellent idea but this proposal makes a mockery of our profession."

Opposition to the College's extensive powers, the cost to teachers, and the control of the Governing Council by non-teachers were cited most frequently by the respondents to explain their shift. Other factors, given either as criticisms or concerns, were reported, though less frequently than the three listed above. These include concern with implementation of the College and the assumption that it would be more of a "disciplinary body rather than a professional body." The College may weaken the position of the Federation. Concern about accreditation, competence testing, duplication of services, another level of bureaucracy, and another accountability mechanism were all advanced as reasons. Some reasons were very specific. Teachers would not have knowledge when an investigation of themselves occurs. It is not self-regulatory since the Minister can override decisions. Treating physical conditions as possibly disciplinary issues was unprofessional. The College could adversely affect the careers of teachers. There would be less protection than teachers have had in the past. One respondent (initially somewhat in favour and currently strongly opposed) summarized opposition as follows: "Self regulation seemed a step forward but the make-up of the college will mean that teachers do not control their own profession! The investigation/discipline process is totalitarian and completely unacceptable! Why are we paying for a body we have no control over, with dangerous powers that could be abused to do a job that is already done by the gov't and OTF???" There is much passion and anger in many comments given by the respondents.

In addition, one respondent believed that the College would deal with the selection of teachers if redundancy of a position occurred in a school board. Another expressed concern that "the union would be terminated."

The importance of communication is recognized in the responses given by those who participated in the study. Accurate and timely information needs to be provided for teachers since distortions will bring on needless worry. To correct the two examples that are cited above: the College will not be involved with redundancy issues and the union will not be terminated.

Generally Advanced Positive Aspects in Personal Practice

Fullan (1991) suggests that “interactive professionalism” (p. 142) occurs when teachers and others are working together, often interacting in planning, investigating new ideas, exploring solutions to problems, assessing and evaluating processes, and the list continues: “It is interactive in the sense that giving and receiving advice and help would be the natural order of things. Teachers would be continuous learners in a community of interactive professionals” (p.142). In describing what teachers see as the likely positive aspects of having an Ontario College of Teachers that would have an impact on their personal practice as a teacher, respondents expressed strong support for professional learning, for discipline, for standards, for enhanced public image, and for the role of the College.

The respondents believe that there will be an increase in their professional growth, that the College will ensure access to increased professional learning and allow for their input into their learning needs, that there will be greater access to more professional materials to be used in the classroom, and that there will be recognition of additional acceptable courses for certification. There will be an ongoing in-servicing, upgrading of teachers, and a requirement for teachers to take refresher courses to keep up-to-date. They believe that they will have “a voice in defining

the quality of professional practice” which will lead to better practices. The College will also enhance networking for teachers. This supports Fullan’s view of “interactive professionalism” regarding teachers working together and with others.

Teachers believe that there will be an increase in public confidence and a better public image if they are not seen as members of a union but rather recognized for their professional status. They regard non-unionized supervision of the profession along with union monitoring as desirable. This non-unionized supervision, some teachers believe, will lead to a higher sense of improved accountability. Many want to be judged by one’s peers rather than anyone else. Teachers expect their peers to provide intelligent and fair monitoring.

In the area of discipline, the College is seen as preventing some senseless charges levelled against teachers from being allowed to proceed to court. Others see the College’s role in the area of competency by removing teaching “certificates for unsatisfactory performance or moral issues”. The College will enable teachers to present grievances and concerns.

Under the umbrella of standards, teachers believe that there will be an improved quality of teaching, since there is a need for standardization and maintenance of professional conduct and practice: “It will help me to keep my goals in mind.” There will be a consistency of standards: for a higher standard of education, for qualifications and guidelines, for faculties of education, for student-teachers’ practice teaching and evaluation, and for teaching practice. Teachers will be responsible for the criteria by which they will be judged. They speak of

opportunity for frequent assessment of their own performance and ensuring that their growth plans are relevant to them.

Some respondents see the College's role as being "a check and balance with the Federation," and the College will be a legitimate vehicle for presenting complaints. It is also seen as taking a role in "negotiations regarding preparatory time and terms of leave on a province-wide scale." Since it is self-regulating and self-licensing, it should be supportive in promoting and assessing teachers. It is viewed by some of the responding sample as having a direct line to the Government concerning the effects of cutbacks and should effect changes to the Education Act. More control will be held over the profession but the control will be in the hands of teachers.

The expectations outlined will not always be the responsibility of the OCT. Several expectations are also the responsibility of school boards and federations (e.g., negotiations, terms of leave). Clearly, there are high expectations.

Generally Advanced Negative Aspects in Personal Practice

In describing what teachers see as the likely negative aspects of having an Ontario College of Teachers that would have an impact on their personal practice as a teacher, respondents expressed concerns about cost, personal impact, governance, and investigation and discipline.

The cost of the College was one of the main issues; this was also linked with the cost of the mandatory professional learning required. Teachers objected to paying both federation fees and college fees and feared that the College would be another bureaucratic layer providing duplicate, redundant services. Teacher “paperwork” would increase, especially “the logging of all educational experience to compile a satisfactory profile of professional development (as if we don’t already have enough on our plates).”

Personal impact was described as increased pressure: “more stress and time away from classroom,” that it would “use more of my precious time,” and constitute an invasion of teacher/client privilege. The power of Council members who “know very little about education and thus make uninformed, unrealistic, and idealistic demands” distressed some teachers who felt that “teachers should be evaluated by other teachers and not by people who will receive patronage appointments and who have little or no working knowledge of what a teacher’s life involves but [have] power to make the legislation we have to follow.” There was also apprehension regarding a decrease in teacher morale. Anxiety was expressed regarding classroom practice, that a teacher “might become more concerned about doing things by the book and perhaps less creatively” and that a teacher might be “forced to use materials or teaching styles not considering students’ or teachers’ abilities, personalities, needs and background.” Teachers believe that they do not need someone to tell them that additional qualifications are required or to specify what courses they need to take.

Lack of teacher representation on the Governing Council was coupled with the view that political interference would occur. There is “the fear that an appointed body of civil servants, special interest reps (*sic*) will hold sway over the elected teachers reps who will always be new to the job”. They are concerned about “political interference by gov’t (*sic*) or by single-issue groups that will try to force their own agenda on the profession.”

Investigation and discipline evoked forth impassioned responses. Teachers view the College’s role in this area as intrusive. They fear the “big-brother-is-watching-you” aspect. “Any time powers are given to an agency to allow search [of] a teacher’s home, how can teachers feel any sense of trust in their college.” It “may/will cause teachers with problems to possibly ‘go underground’ with fears of reprimand rather than seek help.” They are worried about frivolous complaints and “concerned about process when a complaint is made against a teacher,” that the federation support would not be there, and that the “teacher will be one person against a jury by mail”.

Teachers generated many questions, many of which are not in the domain of the College. How do you reconcile different teaching styles with current schools of thought (e.g., whole language)? Can practice be dictated? What criteria will be used to evaluate a teacher’s performance? Who will determine the criteria? Who will evaluate teachers? Who sets the standards? There is concern and anxiety among the teaching body about another body that earlier was described as not wanted and not asked for.

Generally Advanced Positive Aspects in Professional Practice

In describing the likely positive aspects of the Ontario College of Teachers for the teaching profession as a whole, teachers identified public image, professionalism, standards, and professional development.

Improvement of public image headed the list. Teachers believe that a central body as spokesperson for all teachers will be a positive voice and increase teacher solidarity. Teaching would be seen as a profession rather than a job. Some believe that it will ensure the best possible teaching force right up to retirement years and it will be a “body to help keep the teaching profession on the straight and narrow—perhaps by making our profession the best it can be, that it can regain the public’s respect.”

Some see that the College will help increase teacher professionalism and the level of expertise for individual teachers. The idea that the College would remove the incompetent teacher was emphasized; “get rid of” was the term used most often in describing the removal of “teachers who should not be working with children.”

Standards of practice for the province would ensure higher standards of professionalism and accountability with more accountability seen as a positive aspect. There is an expectation that the College would ensure that the courses that teachers would take would become more challenging and relevant. The fact that professional development would now be mandatory would prod the unmotivated and sedentary teacher to upgrade and improve skills.

Generally Advanced Negative Aspects in Professional Practice

In describing the likely negative aspects of an Ontario College of Teachers for the teaching profession as a whole, teachers expressed concerns about governance and loss of professionalism. One respondent was very aware of Bill 31 and cited sections on powers of investigation, discipline, reinstatement, and court appeals as being negative for the teaching profession.

Teachers describe an already low morale among teachers as becoming even lower. Some believe that the profession will be further undermined and that it will experience higher stress and turn-over rates. They believe that mandated professional development is a negative feature of the College. Some think that there will be a lack of confidentiality during hearings such that the information uncovered or given will be made public.

One main concern centres on governance and its resulting bureaucracy. There will be too much power given to the Governing Council, too much regimentation, less regional influence, more standardization, too much public input, and too many mandated activities. They are concerned about the role of the Minister of Education and Training, the membership on the Governing Council, and a balanced representation. Increased bureaucracy, they felt, would result in time away from the classroom, duplication of services, and the expense involved in administering a college.

Some responded to the questions listed above with the answer “none.” There were no redeeming features that some respondents saw regarding the College on a personal level or for the profession as a whole. One respondent, not included in the sample, returned the survey explaining that it could not be completed because the idea of a College of Teachers was too upsetting.

Impassioned statements and arguments were found throughout the survey results; if teachers were strongly opposed or strongly in favour, they wrote comments throughout the questionnaire. Those who were undecided questioned aspects of the College which have been summarized above.

Current Response Profile

A comparative analysis seeking the characteristics which differentiate those who favour versus those who oppose versus those who are undecided on the OCT proposal shows that there are no statistically significant differences between people in the three positions with respect to region, sex, age, panel, position, years of full-time teaching, or years of teaching experience outside of Ontario. (Additional information may be found in Appendix G.) Part-time teaching, experience in an other occupation prior to teaching, and language of instruction provided some statistically significant difference. There is a relatively higher number of undecided respondents with one or two years of part-time teaching ($p = 0.04252$). These respondents may not necessarily be included in the mainstream of events in the life of a school and may feel marginalized. Proportionately more of those who currently favour the OCT proposal had another

occupation prior to teaching ($p = 0.05774$). This may be explained by the “Go west, young man” theory which may result in wider range of perception because of work experience other than those related solely to classroom teaching experience. There is a relatively higher proportion of Francophone respondents among the undecided group ($p = 0.02787$). This may be the result of not enough information being shared by either the OTF or AEFO with teachers in French-first-language schools.

Table 19
Numerical Distribution of Current Response Profile
by Age, Sex, Panel, Position, Education and Language

Category	Favour	Undecided	Oppose
Age:			
20 - 29	2	1	7
30 - 39	11	6	24
40 - 49	18	11	51
50 - 59	10	10	27
Sex:			
Male	18	7	41
Female	22	20	64
Region:			
Central	27	15	63
Eastern	7	6	9
Northern	1	4	11
Western	6	3	26
Panel:			
Elementary	32	20	80
Secondary	7	6	24
Both	1	1	2
Position:			
Classroom Teacher	31	21	91
Assist / Dept. Head	3	0	8
Principal / Vice Principal	5	3	6

Category	Favour	Undecided	Oppose
Education:			
BA, BSc, etc.	11	6	28
BEd	16	11	53
MA, MSc, etc.	0	2	4
MEd	10	7	19
PhD, EdD	2	1	0
Language:			
English	38	23	105
French	3	5	4
Part-time Teaching:			
None	30	19	78
1 - 2	6	7	11
3 - 4	1	1	10
5 - 6	3	0	2
> 6	0	0	8
Experience in an Other Occupation			
No	19	17	75
Yes	21	10	34

One teacher summarized the reason for supporting the idea of a College of Teachers, commenting that an “increased monitoring of the degree of professionalism displayed by teachers, i.e., peer monitoring” would occur “and, therefore, a more professional cadre of teachers and therefore, hopefully, increased credibility” would result. Just as adamant was opposition to the College. “The unreasonable and intrusive scrutiny which assumes rampant unprofessionalism within the teaching community is both offensive and demoralizing.” “At the extreme, it could be used to control the entire teaching profession.”

Survey Participants' Response to Facets of the Proposed College of Teachers

The survey included fourteen closed-ended statements (Table 19) intended to probe respondents' opinions on various aspects of the Ontario College of Teachers. Except on one item, the statements were worded positively, i.e., expressed as a benefit to the teaching profession if the College were independent. The teachers were asked to rate the items on a 6-point Likert scale in which "1" represented "strongly agree" and "5" "strongly disagree" with a 6th option of "no opinion." These statements were analysed both individually and as items grouped to provide four scales on professional learning, professional standards, accountability, and OCT support. Not all the respondents rated their opinion of each statement, so the sample size per statement varies as shown in Table 19. The first column of the table provides the statement to which the teachers responded. The second column shows the number of teachers responding to the item and the next five give the percentage of that number who rated them as 1, 2, 3, 4, or 5. The response to 6 (no opinion) is not included since there was negligible response. Column 7 shows the average score or agreement/disagreement (the lower the score, the greater the agreement) and column 8 shows the balance of dichotomous choice by the number of respondents when those who took the neutral position 3 have been deleted.

This section begins with a descriptive presentation and analysis of respondents' opinions and their rating scores (which represent degrees of agreement/disagreement) accorded the individual items. This is followed by further analysis by association with different characteristics of subgroups of the respondents of those statements which, when tested by Chi square, show statistically significant (or near significant) relationship as the 0.05 level.

Table 20
Percentage Distribution of Respondents' Agreement/Disagreement with Questionnaire Statements

Item	n	1 Strong Agree	2 Agree	3 Undecided	4 Disagree	5 Strong Disagree	Average	Dichotomy of Choice
1. The teaching profession has the knowledge and expertise to set standards of practice.	174	51.7	39.1	5.7	2.9	0.6	1.6	158:6
2. If anyone is to judge me on my competence, I'd like another teacher to be the one.	177	42.4	39.0	13.0	3.4	2.3	1.8	144:10
3. It's time that the teaching profession becomes self-regulatory.	163	25.2	38.7	25.2	7.4	3.7	2.6	104:18
4. I believe that the existing proposal for an Ontario College of Teachers should be supported.	169	4.1	11.8	21.3	22.5	40.2	3.8	27:106
5. The teaching profession is best able to judge the conduct of its members on behalf of the public.	175	29.1	50.9	9.1	7.4	3.4	2.1	140:19
6. The only way the profession will achieve accountability and credibility is with direct public input.	169	6.5	25.4	22.5	26.6	18.9	3.7	54:77
7. The teaching profession should take responsibility for the on-going professional learning of its members.	171	35.1	46.2	8.8	5.8	4.1	2.0	139:17
8. A professional learning framework is necessary to set clear priorities for professional learning.	161	21.1	47.8	14.9	9.9	6.2	2.3	111:26
9. The College of Teachers will give teachers more say in defining the quality of professional practice.	171	6.4	20.5	24.0	22.2	26.9	3.4	46:84
10. The College of Teachers will give teachers more say in the quality and utility of continual professional learning.	166	6.0	22.3	22.9	22.3	26.5	3.4	47:81
11. I don't need a College; I am best able to judge my professional learning needs.	167	24.6	29.3	16.2	19.8	10.2	2.6	90:50
12. Teachers should be responsible for accrediting the groups that deliver professional learning programs.	169	18.9	55.0	21.3	4.7	0.0	2.1	125:8
13. Regulating teachers' qualifications should be the responsibility of a professional body.	161	23.6	49.1	12.4	8.1	6.8	2.6	117:24
14. A self-regulating College of Teachers is a significant step forward for the profession of teaching.	166	8.4	26.5	25.9	15.1	24.1	3.2	58:65

The items were grouped under the following four headings for descriptive analysis.

1) Professional Standards (PS) includes:

The teaching profession has the knowledge and expertise to set standards of practice.

If anyone is to judge me on my competence, I'd like another teacher to be the one.

The teaching profession is best able to judge the conduct of its members on behalf of the public.

Teachers should be responsible for accrediting the groups that deliver professional learning programs.

2) Professional Learning (PL) includes:

A professional learning framework is necessary to set clear priorities for professional learning.

The College of Teachers will give teachers more say in defining the quality of professional practice.

The College of Teachers will give teachers more say in the quality and utility of continual professional learning.

I don't need a College; I am best able to judge my professional learning needs.

Regulating teachers' qualifications should be the responsibility of a professional body.

A self-regulating College of Teachers is a significant step forward for the profession of teaching.

3) Accountability (AC) includes

It's time that the teaching profession becomes self-regulatory.

The only way the profession will achieve accountability and credibility is with direct public input.

The teaching profession should take responsibility for the on-going professional learning of its members.

4) OCT Support (OCT) includes:

I believe that the existing proposal for an Ontario College of Teachers should be supported.

What is your current response to the concept of having an Ontario College of Teachers?

The statements which referred to Professional Standards received high endorsement, or at least clear approval, from the majority of respondents. It may confidently be said that these teachers believe that the profession has the knowledge and expertise to set standards of practice and would prefer to have their competence judged by another teacher. The majority agreed that the profession is best able to judge the conduct of its members on behalf of the public and felt that teachers should be responsible for accrediting professional learning programs. This can be further seen from the Dichotomy of Choice which, excluding the neutral category, groups the strongly agree and agree in comparison to the total of teachers who disagree and strongly disagree. On no other single item was there such agreement as on the first statement, that the teaching profession has the knowledge and skills to set standards of practice. This also supports the belief of the Federations which have argued that teachers are able to set standards of practice. Strong support is also evident for having one teacher judge another teacher in terms of competence. There is evidence to support the fact that teachers trust each other's judgment regarding the competency of teachers. This may be supported further by some of the anecdotal comments made about teachers who are seen as "deadwood" or "incompetent".

Table 21
Percentage Responses to Rating the Professional Standards Statements

	n	1 Strongly Agree	2 Agree	3 ?	4 Disagree	5 Strongly Disagree	Average	Dichotomy of Choice
1. The teaching profession has the knowledge and expertise to set standards of practice.	174	51.7	39.1	5.7	2.9	0.6	1.6	158:6
2. If anyone is to judge me on my competence, I'd like another teacher to be the one.	177	42.4	39.0	13.0	3.4	2.3	1.8	144:10
5. The teaching profession is best able to judge the conduct of its members on behalf of the public.	175	29.1	50.9	9.1	7.4	3.4	2.1	140:19
12. Teachers should be responsible for accrediting the groups that deliver professional learning programs.	169	18.9	55.0	21.3	4.7	0.0	2.1	125:8

For each of the items of this cluster, cross tabulations were run showing average respondent rating by age, sex, panel, position, academic qualifications, years of teaching (full-time and part-time), and other prior experience. Only breakdowns at or near statistical significance (Chi-square) have been included.

Significant variances were found only for 1 item (# 1) on the list involving professional standards. A remarkable unanimity was expressed, showing that, on this dimension, the responsibilities inherent in a self-governing professional organization would encounter little hostility. This conclusion is supported in the anecdotal comments made by teachers. In general, they expressed a need for and support of professional standards. This item showed that a significant relationship exists between the age of the rater and the opinion on the item.

Table 22

Item: The teaching profession has the knowledge and expertise to set standards of practice

	n	Agree	?	Disagree	p
Age					
20 - 39	49	91.8	8.2	0.0	0.056
40 - 49	79	86.1	6.3	7.6	
50 - 59	46	97.8	2.2	0.0	

Responses to the set of statements related to Professional Learning items were mixed. Moreover, several items (statements # 9, 10, and 14) had large numbers who were undecided. The majority of the teachers agreed with the necessity of a professional learning framework for setting clear priorities for professional learning (69%) and that regulation of teachers' qualifications should be the responsibility of a professional body (73%). The balance is almost 2 to 1 against the proposition that having a College will give teachers more say in defining the quality of professional practice (1.8:1 or 49%) and in the quality and utility of professional learning (1.7:1 or 49%). The majority agreed that they did not need a College to help decide their learning needs as outlined in item # 11; they were best able to judge such need themselves. The statement that a self-regulating College would be a significant step forward for the teaching profession has the largest proportion of undecided of the Professional Learning items (almost 26%). The distribution on this item is interesting. Clearly, almost as large a group is undecided on the advantage of a College in advancing the profession of teaching as have settled for one of the other two groups; in absolute terms, it is 58 - 43 - 65, with 58 in agreement, 43 undecided, and 65 opposed.

Table 23
Percentage Responses to Rating the Professional Learning Statements

	n	1 Strongly Agree	2 Agree	3 ?	4 Disagree	5 Strongly Disagree	Average	Dichotomy of Choice
8. A professional learning framework is necessary to set clear priorities for professional learning.	161	21.1	47.8	14.9	9.9	6.2	2.3	111:26
9. The OCT will give teachers more say in defining the quality of professional practice.	171	6.4	20.5	24.0	22.2	26.9	3.4	46:84
10. The OCT will give teachers more say in the quality and utility of continual professional learning.	166	6.0	22.3	22.9	22.3	26.5	3.4	47:81
11. I don't need a College; I am best able to judge my professional learning needs.	167	24.6	29.3	16.2	19.8	10.2	2.6	90:50
13. Regulating teachers' qualifications should be the responsibility of a professional body.	161	23.6	49.1	12.4	8.1	6.8	2.3	117:24
14. A self-regulating College of Teachers is a significant step forward for the profession of teaching.	166	8.4	26.5	25.9	15.1	24.1	3.2	58:65

For each of the items of this cluster, cross tabulations were run showing average respondent rating by age, sex, panel, position, academic qualifications, years of teaching (full-time and part-time), and other prior experience. As with Professional Standards, only breakdowns at or near statistical significance (Chi-square) have been included.

There is clear support for the development of a professional learning framework by all, but more so by those who have experienced another occupation. The framework may be seen as providing definition around professional learning. This may be attributed to the view that those who held other occupations have of the need for a framework for professional learning. These teachers may see that this framework should help them receive the kind of professional learning that they believe is required rather than what someone else believes is necessary.

Table 24

Item: A professional learning framework is necessary to set clear priorities for professional learning.

	n	Agree	?	Disagree	p
Position					
Teacher, Dept. Head, Assistant	139	67.6	14.4	18.0	0.113
Principal, Vice-Principal	13	69.2	30.8	0.0	
Other Occupation					
No	101	62.4	17.8	19.8	0.085
Yes	58	79.3	10.3	10.3	

When view separately, teachers, department heads, and assistant department heads do not support the idea that the College will allow teachers more say in the type of professional learning that they believe is appropriate for them to the same degree as school administrators support the idea. Teachers have indicated that they are generally opposed to the College; this thinking, it can be surmised, has direct influence on any activities for which the College has responsibility and which has a direct impact on the teachers.

Table 25

Item: The College of Teachers will give teachers more say in defining the quality and utility of continual professional learning.

	n	Agree	?	Disagree	p
Position					
Teacher, Dept. Head, Assistant Head	145	24.1	24.1	51.7	0.014
Principal, Vice-Principal	13	61.5	15.4	23.1	

The level of educational attainment when cross tabulated with a previous occupation shows that those with a higher educational level are more in agreement with the combination of a College and professional learning needs and do not see these two as mutually exclusive of each other.

Table 26

Item: I don't need a College, I am best able to judge my professional learning needs.

	n	Agree	?	Disagree	p
Position					
Teacher	134	56.7	17.9	25.4	0.006
Principal, VP, Dept.Head, Assist.	24	41.7	8.3	50.0	
Other Occupation x Education					
No	97	61.9	13.4	24.7	0.054
Yes, BA	45	46.7	22.2	31.1	
Yes, MA/PhD	16	31.3	12.5	56.3	

School administrators are more receptive to a College of Teachers than the teacher and department head respondents. These administrators, while rather small in number (12), may view the College as a support to their role in the sense that they see the College as the vehicle to remove ineffective teachers from the classroom. The College may also be seen as the group that will be the motivating force to improve the quality of teaching in their particular schools.

Table 27

Item: A self-regulating College of Teachers is a significant step forward for the profession of teaching.

	n	Agree	?	Disagree	p
Position					
Teacher, Dept. Head, Assistant	145	32.4	24.8	42.8	0.056
Principal, Vice-Principal	12	58.3	33.3	8.3	
Other Occupation					
No	101	27.7	28.7	43.6	0.056
Yes	63	46.0	28.6	33.3	

In response to the accountability statements, an overwhelming number (139 respondents, 81%) of the respondents agreed that the profession should take responsibility for its members' on-going professional learning and a large number (104 respondents, 64%) agreed that it's time for the profession to become self regulatory. While in agreement with these statements, the respondents may not necessarily agree that the College of Teachers is the appropriate group to look after these activities. It does show, however, that teachers have confidence in the profession to carry out these activities.

For two of the statements in this group (# 3 and # 6), however, the large number of undecided ratings gives food for thought (# 3, 25% representing 41 respondents; # 6, 23% representing 38 respondents). Further, only 32% saw a role for direct public input in the attainment of accountability and credibility, while 45.5% disagreed. Clearly, more information about the concept of self-governance and persuasive reasonable argument on its merits are needed to move some of the respondents from their position.

Table 28
Percentage Response to Rating the Accountability Statements

	n	1 Strongly Agree	2 Agree	3 ?	4 Disagree	5 Strongly Disagree	Average	Dichotomy of Choice
3. It's time that the teaching profession becomes self-regulatory.	163	25.2	38.7	25.2	7.4	3.7	2.3	104:18
6. The only way the profession will achieve accountability and credibility is with direct public input.	169	6.5	25.4	22.5	26.6	18.9	3.3	54:77
7. The teaching profession should take responsibility for the on-going professional learning of its members.	171	35.1	46.2	8.8	5.8	4.1	4.1	139:17

There were no cross tabulations in this table which showed statistical significance.

There were only two items in this cluster, a statement and a question. As Table 28 shows, both items have very high average scores because a clear majority of respondents both oppose the concept of an OCT and disagree with the current proposal.

Table 29
Percentage Response to Rating the Ontario College of Teacher Statements

	n	1 Highly In Favour	2 In Favour	3 ?	4 Opposed	5 Strongly Opposed	Average	Dichotomy of Choice
4. I believe that the existing proposal for a College of Teachers should be supported.	169	4.1	11.8	21.3	22.5	40.2	3.8	27:106
Current response to the concept of having an Ontario College of Teachers.	178	2.8	20.2	15.7	28.1	33.1	3.7	42:109

Few of the cross tabulations yielded evidence of statistically significant relationship to the sample number.

Even when the respondent sample is categorized as teachers, department and assistant department heads, and school administrators, the undecided portion of both groups, almost one-quarter in each case, is high. Teachers are opposed to the College.

Table 30

Item: I believe that the existing proposal for an Ontario College of Teachers should be supported.

	n	Agree	?	Disagree	p
Position					
Teacher, Dept. Head, Assistant	147	12.9	21.1	66.0	0.059
Principal, Vice-Principal	14	28.6	28.6	42.8	

Principals and vice-principals and those who have worked in other occupations provide more support to having an Ontario College of Teachers even though it is very weak (at most, only 1:3 to 1:4 respondent support). In effect, no group has outstanding support for the College of Teachers as it was presented in Bill 31.

Table 31

Item: What is your current response to the concept of having an Ontario College of Teachers?

	n	Agree	?	Disagree	p
Other Occupation Prior to Teaching					
No	111	17.1	15.3	67.6	0.058
Yes	65	32.3	15.4	52.3	

Scale Analysis

Four scales were developed from the statements dealing with the characteristics of a College of Teachers, as outlined in The Privilege of Professionalism and the major categories determined through the literature review. Clustering several statements together to form a scale allows for comparing the degree of support for the several functions of a self-regulating organization with the overall support. It also provides an additional opportunity to examine each facet in terms of the characteristics of the sample of respondents to identify which subgroups agree with the object to which aspect of the proposed organization. It provides another look at wherein opposition might cluster and how the particular reservation of subgroups might be addressed to reduce opposition to change. There are four clusters: Professional Standards, Professional Learning, Accountability, and OCT Support.

For a scale to be well designed and produce meaningful results, all its elements must “run” in the same direction. Cronbach’s alpha (α) was used to determine internal consistency reliability. It measures the extent to which items of a scale reflect a single underlying direction. The coefficient varies between 0 and 1.0, with a minimum value of 0.60 considered by convention to be adequate for research purposes. For Professional Standards, Cronbach’s alpha $\alpha = 0.6953$; for Professional Learning, $\alpha = 0.7657$; for Accountability, $\alpha = 0.4919$ and for OCT Support, $\alpha = 0.9319$.

Scale scores were computed by calculating the mean of constituent items. Hence all scale scores range from 1 to 5, corresponding to “strongly agree” through to “strongly disagree” with the sentiment captured by the scale.

As Table 32 shows, greater support is evident from the scores on the Professional Standards scale and the Accountability scale, especially the former. The scores on the Professional Standards scale (mean of 1.91, median of 1.75) were lowest overall, indicating the highest level of agreement with the ability and suitability of the teaching profession to set and enforce standards of practice. The Accountability scale scores, with a mean of 2.5 and a median of 2.33, show general support for self-regulation and professional responsibility, tempered by a degree of uncertainty.

Professional Learning scale scores, showing a mean of 3.05 and median of 3, result from a cluster of ratings around the mid-point of the scale (Figure 4). This is due primarily to the mixed response to the various constituent items (some being strongly supported, some being strongly opposed) which was reported earlier in this chapter. By way of further example, the statement regarding a professional learning framework as necessary was agreed with by more than 4 to 1 and regulating teachers’ qualifications found agreement at the rate of almost 5 to 1. On the other hand, statements regarding College’s allowing teachers to define the quality of professional practice and more say in the quality and utility of professional learning was less than a 2:1 ratio in disagreement.

The highest scores were yielded by the OCT support scale, which reflects the sample's strong disagreement with the proposal for the Ontario College of Teachers *per se*. The high mean of 3.73 and median of 4 indicate majority opposition to the concept of a College and would not support the OCT. These results are shown graphically in Figures 3 and 4. (Note: This is a direct reflection of the way the response scale in the questionnaire is structured. 1 = strongly agree to 5 = strongly disagree) They also demonstrate dramatically the strong disapproval of this scale in comparison to the other three which refer to some facet of the functioning of a self-governing body. Note that the highest variability was found with this scale. These differences between the four scale scores were evaluated by means of the Friedman test for related samples (and confirmed with a series of paired t-tests). All are highly significant ($p < 0.00001$).

Table 32
Scale Scores

Scale	n	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	Mean Rank
Professional Standards (PS)	178	1.91	1.75	0.63	1.62
Professional Learning (PL)	178	3.05	3.00	0.92	3.49
Accountability (AC)	176	2.50	2.33	0.75	2.52
OCT Support (OCT)	179	3.73	4.00	1.17	4.34

Note: This is a direct reflection of the way the response scale in the questionnaire is structured. 1 = strongly agree to 5 = strongly disagree

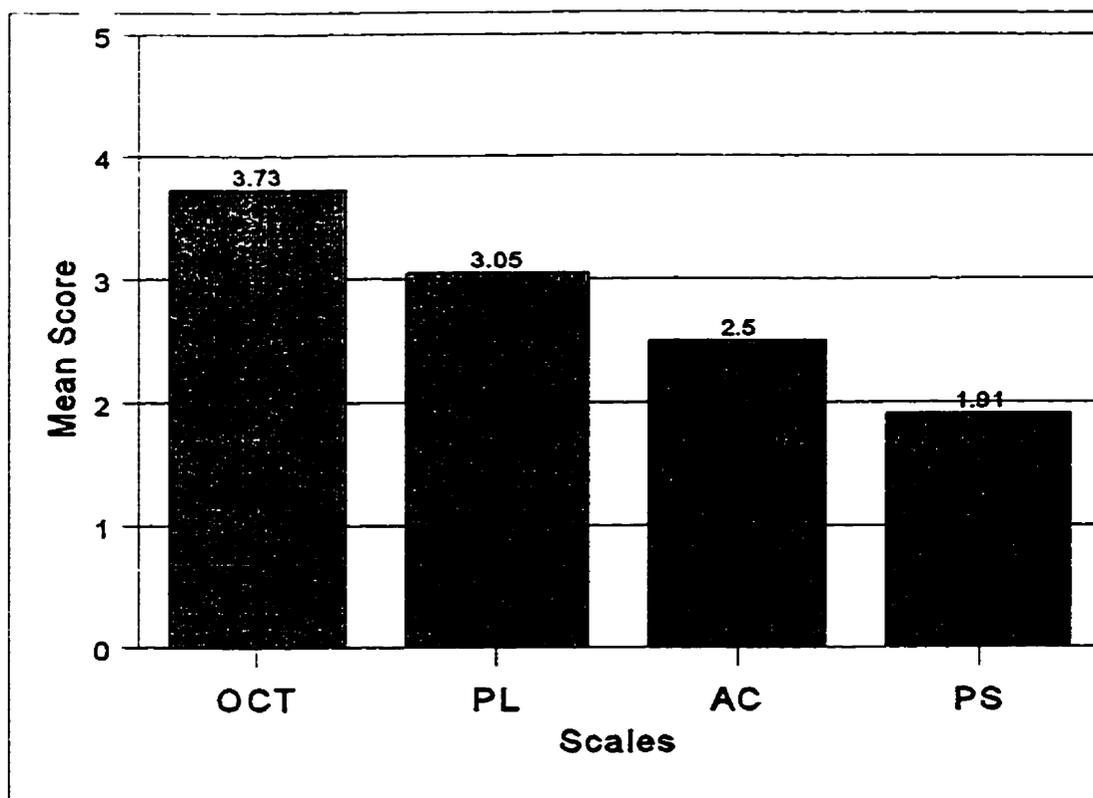


Figure 3: Mean Scale Scores

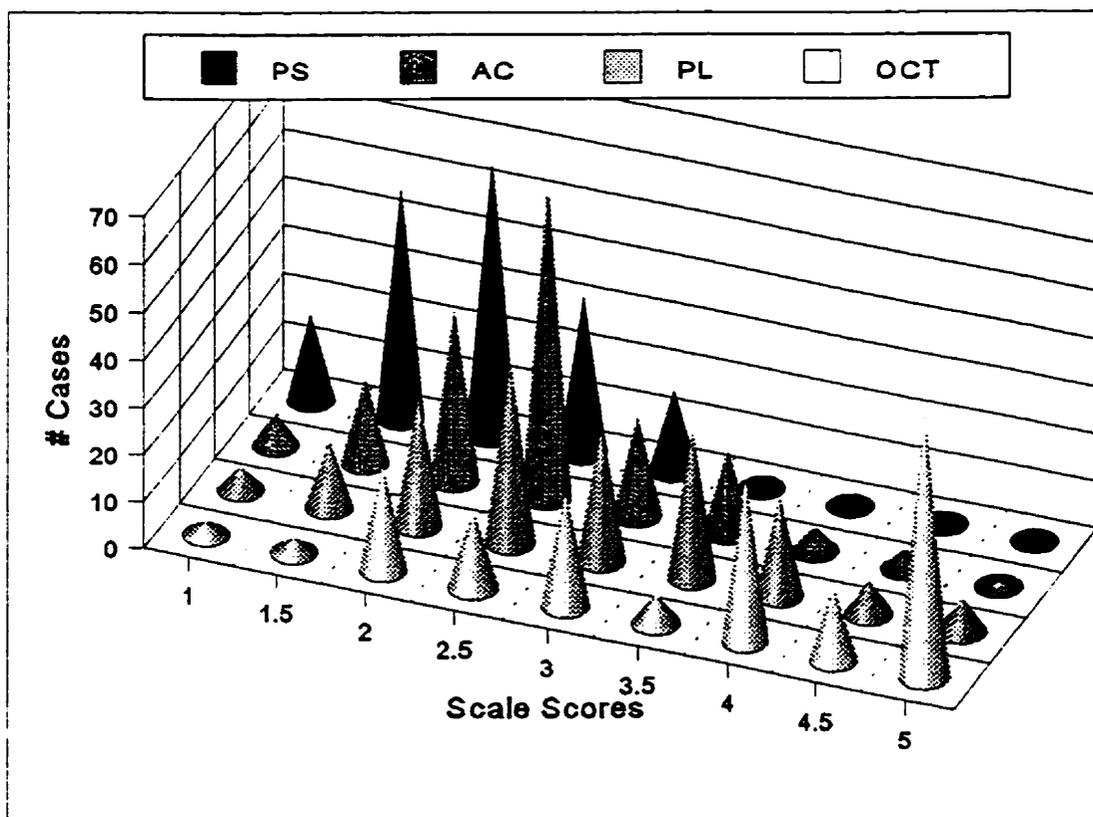


Figure 4: Frequency Distributions of Scale Scores

As already demonstrated in the analysis of the ratings of the individual item statements, the variance in scale scores was primarily produced by the position of the respondent (classroom teachers versus school administrators) and whether the respondent had had some other job prior to entering teaching. For the Professional Standards scale, age proved to have the most powerful influence in the respondents' ratings. Scale scores were also analysed by means of Analysis of Variance to determine which background characteristics exert significant influences and to guide subsequent analysis of scale items. Full results of these ANOVA's are presented in Appendix F, and are summarized below.

Professional Standards

The strongest support for the statements which form the professional standards scale was found among respondents aged 20 to 39; the lowest among the 40 to 49 age group. There was a variance of 3.3%, and the value was significant at $p = 0.073$. Respondents who had more years of part-time teaching experience also tended to be more supportive of professional standards (2.9% of the variance; $p = 0.032$). These findings are presented graphically in Figure 5.

The support for standards from the youngest group of respondents may stem from the fact that they are young and are looking for guidance in their chosen career. The lack of support from teachers in the 40 to 49 age group may be explained by the fact that the majority have been teaching for many years and do not believe that they require standards for themselves. Their experience has guided them thus far and should continue to do so.

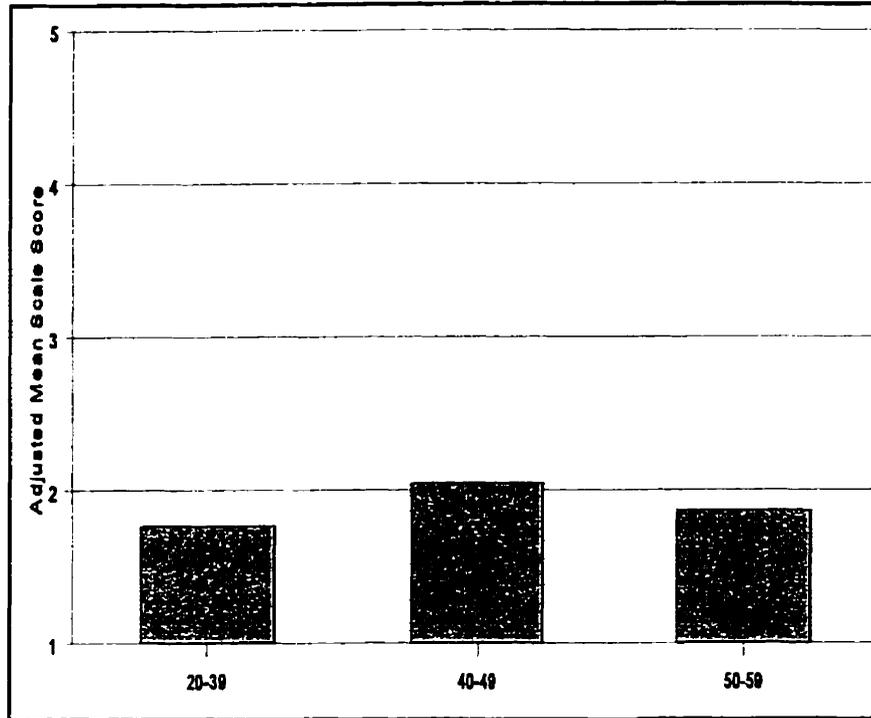


Figure 5: Professional Standards

Note: This is a direct reflection of the way the response scale in the questionnaire is structured. 1 = strongly agree to 5 = strongly disagree

Professional Learning

The greatest opposition to the professional learning principles was registered by those who went straight into teaching, regardless of education. The greatest support was among those who went into teaching after having been employed in another occupation, and those who hold a graduate degree. Respondents with a previous occupation and who hold a bachelor's degree fall between these two groups (4.7% of the variance; $p = 0.023$). The classroom teachers rated with higher scores (i.e., were more opposed) to the statements of the professional learning scale than administrators who, in the analysis, included Department Heads, Assistant Heads, Principals, and Vice-Principals. They were relatively more supportive (2.7% of variance; $p = 0.038$).

Respondents with many years of part-time teaching experience tended to be more opposed than all others to the items on the professional learning scale (2.1% of variance; $p = 0.066$).

Those teachers who are more supportive of professional learning, it may be suggested, have had other opportunities to participate in professional learning activities in previous occupations and recognize the role that these play in advancing one's skills. Those with further education believe in its value by the fact that they have participated in more education. Classroom teachers may feel secure in what they are doing currently and believe that they do not need additional professional learning, while administrators may conclude that all teachers (including themselves) require professional learning.

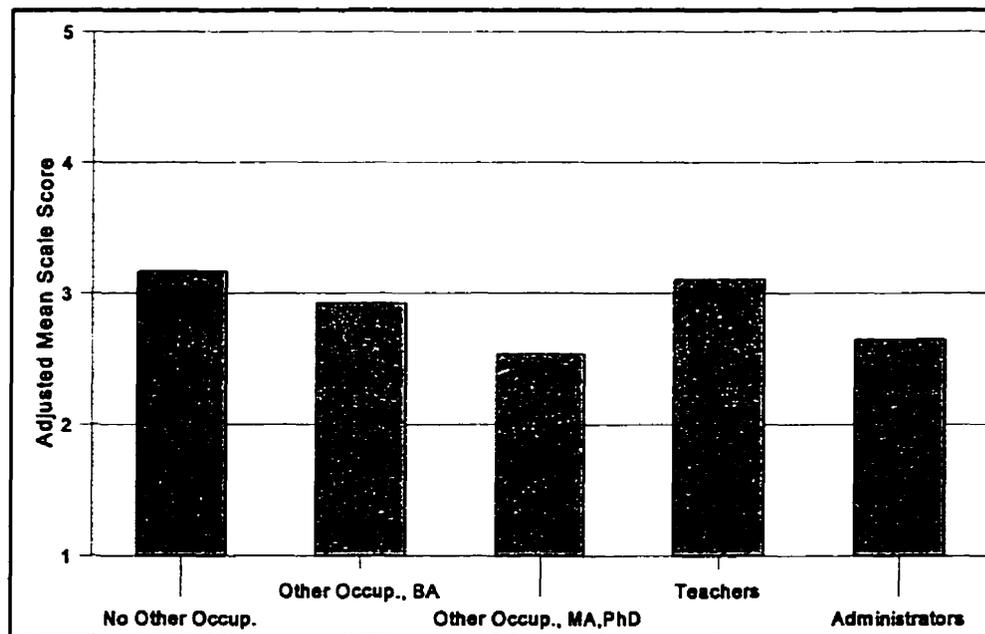


Figure 6: Professional Learning

Note: This is a direct reflection of the way the response scale in the questionnaire is structured. 1 = strongly agree to 5 = strongly disagree

Accountability

The strongest support for the principle of accountability as demonstrated by the rating of the statements which made up the scale was found among Principals and Vice-Principals; the weakest support came from Department Heads and Assistant Department Heads, with classroom teachers falling in between (3.5 % of the variance; $p = 0.077$).

Department Heads and Assistant Department Heads are responsible and accountable to Principals and Vice-Principals of their schools. They respond to working with teachers on the one hand and on the other, working with Principals and Vice-Principals and may feel trapped. Their understanding of accountability may be the narrow sense of “reporting” to the one above and “answering” to the below.

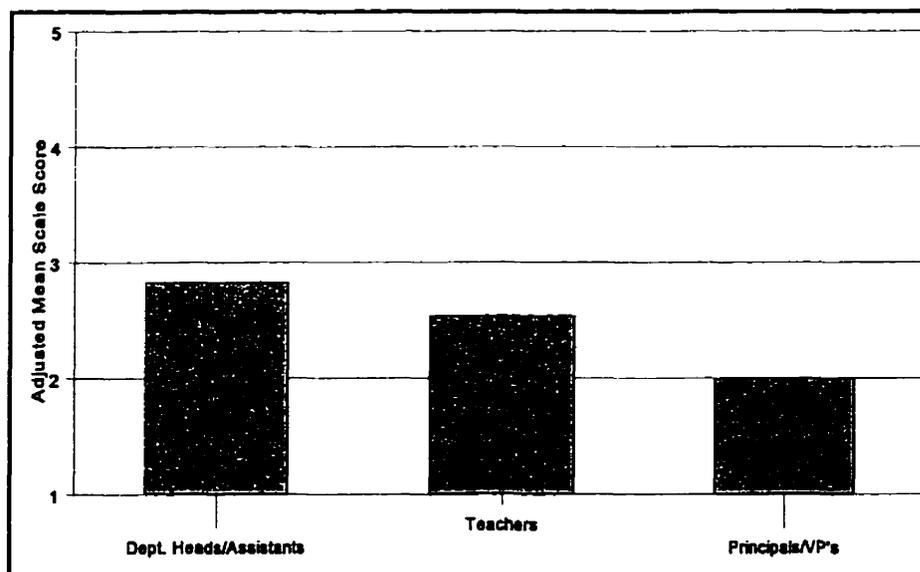


Figure 7: Accountability

Note: This is a direct reflection of the way the response scale in the questionnaire is structured. 1 = strongly agree to 5 = strongly disagree

OCT Support

On the OCT scale items, teachers and Department Heads show more opposition to the current College proposal than do Principals and Vice-Principals and this difference shows in the analysis of the composite scores (variance was 2.8%; $p = 0.030$). Also, respondents who had had other occupations prior to entering teaching were less opposed to the concept and current proposal which are the elements of the scale than those who entered teaching directly (2.2% of variance; $p = 0.055$). In addition, respondents having greater teaching experience were more opposed to the proposal than those with few years of full-time teaching (2.9% of variance; $p = 0.029$).

Some teachers believe, given some of the information, or misinformation that they have received, that the College will institute “witch hunts”, search teachers’ homes and classrooms for materials for evidence, conduct costly exercises, and make demands on them that are unreasonable. By the comments given in the anecdotal portion of the study, these fears are real. There is a belief, supported by researchers such as Casey (1981), that the Federations are undertaking both a union role and a professional role. However, also supported by Casey is the belief that the union cannot be both judge and defence counsel for a teacher if required. Teachers may not necessarily understand that point. Coulter (1996) expressed her point of view that the College of Teachers with its list of prescriptions does not allow for teacher autonomy. This may also influence teachers’ viewpoints.

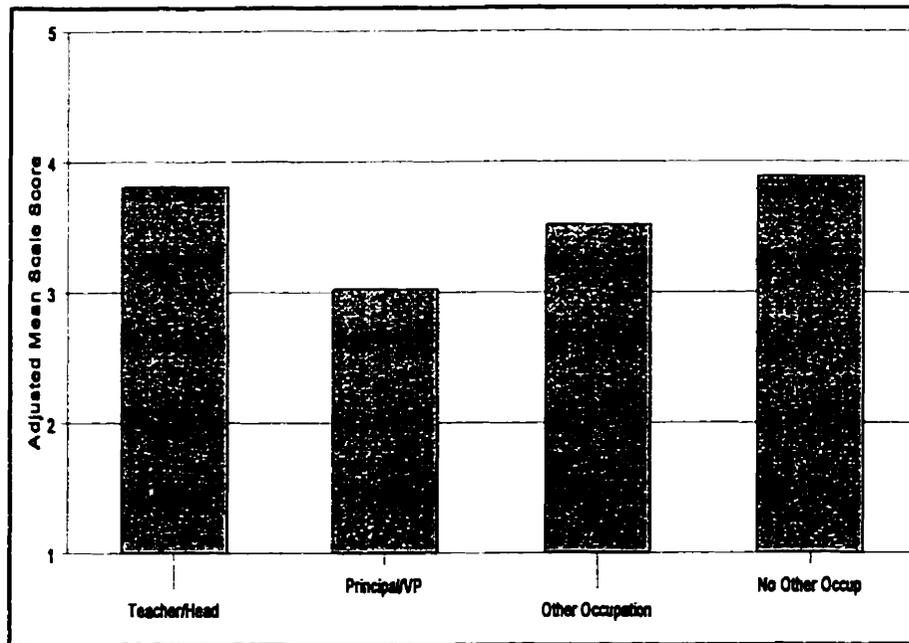


Figure 8: OCT Support

Note: This is a direct reflection of the way the response scale in the questionnaire is structured. 1 = strongly agree to 5 = strongly disagree

Long Term Impact of the College of Teachers

Teachers provided a variety of responses to the long term impact of the College of Teachers on them. The responses could be clustered under personal, professional, public, and Federation. The comment given most often was that teachers view it will have either no impact or very little impact. Teachers who feel they are doing their job and are concerned about students do not see any impact on themselves. Those who are within a few years of retirement or are leaving the profession see that there will no impact on them. Some have indicated that there may be more stress among teachers depending on the demands of the College in the area of

professional learning. Some feel that there is no positive impact and see the College as negative since the fees will reduce salary. Time away from family was seen as another impact because teachers will be taking courses or involved with “paperwork “ that is required.

Professionally, teachers see an improvement in the profession; that teachers who are not meeting the standards set will be forced to improve or leave. One teacher commented that “hopefully I will feel better about myself as a teacher because teachers as a group will through the College “pull themselves up” professionally. Morale will be improved because “deadwood” in the profession will be confronted and dealt with.” Other concerns relate to professional learning in the northern areas of the province or where French-language courses may not be readily available.

Some believe that the status of teaching will be raised and that improvement of status will have a positive response on public perception. The improvement about the way teachers are trained and licensing is conducted will also raise the status of teaching. It will lead to respect for teaching as a profession. Some believe that the Government’s political agenda will be part of the College.

Some have expressed concern about the role of the Federation. Will the College be the demise of it? There is concern regarding duplication of services with the OTF and the other Federations. This teacher determined that eventually a balance would need to be reached.

Teachers were intense in their responses. “There will be no autonomy.” “Absolutely nothing.” “Less personal and professional freedom.” One teacher reworded the question: “What long term impact do I believe the OCT will have on the students?” Teachers expressed concern for the students in their classrooms and for the parents that Cullen (1992) has determined are two of the stakeholders to whom teachers are accountable.

Summary

This chapter has presented the results of the quantitative data. It described the Ontario teaching force and compared this to the respondent sample. The responses to the College of Teachers both anecdotal and quantitative have been reported. The descriptive analyses of the items have been provided and the scale analysis concludes the chapter. The last section outlined what teachers believe will be the long impact of the College.

CHAPTER EIGHT

CONCLUSION

This chapter presents conclusions drawn from the findings of the study and their implications for various stakeholders that include teachers, federations, government, self-governing organizations, and the Ontario College of Teachers. It concludes with identifying areas which may be researched in the future.

Introduction

The present descriptive, quantitative study of the proposed Ontario College of Teachers originated from several sources. The first arose from the writer's experiences as a teacher and as an administrator in both the elementary and secondary panels in some of Ontario's schools. Personal and professional experience in working with a wide range of teachers exhibiting various degrees of professionalism has contributed to the desire to conduct this research. Much attention has been given to the teacher in the classroom and much of the attention has not been positive. One needs to read or hear few media reports to confirm this. Was there a way that this could change?

The second major source from which the study originated was the announcement by Dave Cooke, Minister of Education and Training that a College of Teachers, a self-governing body, would be established for Ontario's educators. The announcement created a flurry of activity from all quarters, the Government, the teachers' Federations, the Ministry of Education and Training, and organizations with a vested interest in education. At times, general public comment was also given.

The last source which provided impetus for the study was the literature on professions and the teaching community. An abundance of literature is available on the subject of profession and its attendant characteristics but there is relatively little on teaching as a profession. What is written is not often supportive of teaching as a profession in the same sense as the traditional professions.

Thus, it seemed logical that this research be undertaken. There are, however, some inherent dangers in researching a topic that is current, that generates emotion and debate, and that is not popular in all sectors. The results of the research may not be "politically correct". The conflict of strong personalities may bias the findings since the emotions of the interviewees and respondents are factors in collecting the data.

As a consequence, the purpose of this research became a dual one:

- 1) describe the development of the Ontario College of Teachers by focusing on two functions of such a college, encouraging professional learning and ensuring

accountability and tracing these two aspects of a self-regulating agency over time and in two existing models of teacher self-governance; and

- 2) examine teacher response to the concept of a professional self-regulating college as discussed in The Privilege of Professionalism report and in particular to the proposed model as outlined in Bill 31, An Act to establish the Ontario College of Teachers and to make related amendments to certain statutes.

Value of the Study

The value of the study rests in the fact that it is a pioneer venture in tracing the development of the notion of the Ontario College of Teachers and examining teacher response to the idea of a professional self-governing body. In a practical sense, it provides the College of Teachers' Governing Council with recommendations based on the study of the General Teaching Council for Scotland and the British Columbia College of Teachers and based on teacher response to the College as it was presented in Bill 31.

In a theoretical sense, this thesis provides a repository of information related to the professions and self-regulation/self-governance. It presents the dimensions and characteristics of self-regulation and concretely shows them (or lack thereof) in two college of teachers models-- the General Teaching Council for Scotland and the British Columbia College of Teachers.

The Literature and the Study

The respondents to the questionnaire often discussed teaching as a profession. Some believe that the establishment of the Ontario College of Teachers would ensure that teaching would move more to becoming a profession. But what is the appropriate professional model for teaching? Since historically the definitions and discussions on profession form around doctors, lawyers, and engineers, it may be assumed that this model is appropriate for teachers. The definitions of “profession” that have been recognized as conventional (Cogan (1953), Carr-Saunders and Wilson (1966), Starr (1982), etc.) all have elements that can apply to teaching as a profession. However, the established model of a profession as typified by doctors, lawyers, and engineers has also been argued as an inappropriate model for teaching. The argument often advanced to support that teaching is not a profession is that no theoretical body of knowledge exists. To determine the veracity of that argument would require another lengthy study. Teachers nevertheless would argue that the profession has the knowledge and expertise to set standards of practice. The opportunity to prove that statement as accurate will occur over the next several years as the College with its teachers sets the standards of practice.

Critics have further argued that since teaching is not an autonomous occupation, it cannot be a profession. Autonomy implies that decision-making is left solely in the hands of the professional, that is, the professional is free to make judgments and act on those decisions. MacMillan (1993) states that autonomy is not often found in workers within institutions, yet doctors and lawyers who work in hospitals and law firms are still considered professionals. These professionals deal with the same or similar financial, political, organizational and

community pressures, restrictions, and issues with which teachers deal. Autonomy can be found in institutions and autonomy can be found in schools.

One may contend that autonomy is a component of accountability--that in exercising autonomy, the professional also exercises accountability at the professional service level by ensuring that standards are met and maintained. Teachers recognize this aspect of accountability. Teachers greatly favour another teacher judging them on their competence and believe that teachers are best able to judge the conduct of a teacher on behalf of the public to ensure that standards are met. Cullen's 1992 study determined that the idea of teacher professionalism is located within the teacher's understanding of accountability. Teachers view two audiences to whom they are accountable--students and themselves. With that mindset, it can be understood why teachers do not believe that credibility and accountability can be achieved with public input; the "public" is not seen as an audience to whom teachers are accountable. Accountability for teachers is tangible; they believe in personal, collegial, contractual, and client-based accountability. It must be noted, however, that in this American study, a professional self-governing organization is not weighted as one of the audiences to which teachers are accountable, since such an agency does not exist in the United States. To determine if teachers in Ontario consider a professional self-governing organization as one audience to which it is accountable requires further research.

Autonomy also includes a decision-making component. Tuohy and Wolfson (1976) present decision-making as the essence of a professional. The professional teacher assumes responsibility for the student. To attain and maintain the knowledge, skills, and attitudes

required for decision-making, the teacher, as a member of the profession, takes responsibility for on-going professional learning. Control over one's professional learning is essential since the teacher generally recognizes and understands the learnings that are required because this specialist, in thinking like a teacher, thinks like a professional.

Covert (1988) argues that the ministry model is more appropriate for teaching than the traditional one since this model emphasizes the long term improvement of the client and deals with skills that focus on the human element rather than technical expertise. The knowledge base of the teachers, the professional spirit, and the authority tend to be closer to the clergy model than other models. Grundy (1989) also rejects the traditional model arguing instead that one must examine hypotheses regarding professional conduct and analyze how educational values which guide a teacher's work are served by professional practice. The element of service occurs when the support of learning for the whole student is desired. It can be claimed to be stronger in teaching than in the traditional professions. This particular element may be the reason that teaching joins nursing, social work, and the ministry (clergy) with the designation of 'helping professions' (Stark, Lowther, Hagerty and Orcyak, 1986). Fenstermacher (1990) may also agree that the ministry (clergy) is a more appropriate model for teaching, since his conclusions on how the practice norms of teaching and most other professions are employed, shows that teaching demystifies knowledge while other professions mystify it, does not keep a social distance and must persist in reciprocal effort to be successful. These same elements are required of the clergy. It may be very useful to examine this ministry model in greater detail to determine if it is a more appropriate model for teachers rather than the traditional models with which they may be more familiar.

Currently, according to Kimball (1988), the direction of professionalizing teaching implies that teachers have not had control over the authority or legal power of their expertise. This is accurate. Teachers have not had control over the authority or legal power of their expertise. The development of the OCT, while teachers may disagree with the model presented, will give them control over accreditation of professional education programs including standards of practice, registration and the right to teach in Ontario, professional learning, and discipline.

The literature on the professions shows that there is a movement toward accepting teaching as a profession. The volume of literature also supports the fact that the discussion on teaching as a profession is not concluded.

The Evolution of the Ontario College of Teachers

By examining some aspects of the development of accountability in teaching and professional learning in teaching over time makes it possible to describe the evolution of the College. Parallels exist, for, in the many ways that teaching developed, so did the College of Teachers.

Wentzell (1987) describes what it means to be a professional. Both technical and mechanistic knowledge and a knowledge of moral and intellectual values is required, must be mastered, and interpreted aptly for clients. The educational arena has worked to that end with incremental steps. The standards for teaching have developed and increased over the years beginning with Ryerson who brought teachers together for the improvement of their craft. This

action in turn established various professional associations including an attempt to establish a College of Preceptors. Ryerson ensured that teacher training improved during the 1800s. Following Ryerson, other educators and politicians demanded higher standards of teaching which eventually ensured that teaching became an all-graduate profession. Teacher education is found presently in post-baccalaureate or concurrent programs which now the OCT will review for accreditation. Thus have accountability in teaching and professional learning in teaching developed.

The establishment of the Ontario College of Teachers recognized teaching as a self-governing profession while the Teaching Profession Act (1944) situated teaching as a profession. The Teaching Profession Act was the forerunner for the College of Teachers but, as explained in previous chapters, the process started many years earlier.

Although teachers practise in private (i.e. they generally plan their work in private, they teach one group of students alone, they are accountable for student results), they also work in a public space where fellow professionals can watch them, both in preparation and practice. This also allows all—students, employers, parents, the public—to see the professional’s work and what has been achieved. That has always been the situation with teaching and with the OCT now responsible for teacher registration and will continue since the OCT will require teachers to be accountable for their professional learning.

From 1944 to 1996, discipline had been the responsibility of the Ontario Teachers' Federation. It, specifically the Relations and Discipline Committee, would review teacher cases where there was question of continuance of certification and would recommend to the Minister disposition of each case. This allowed for peer review of members whose conduct was presented before the Minister of Education and Training for judgment. This function had now evolved to the OCT intervention of the OTF or the Minister of Education and Training.

Teaching in elementary and secondary publicly-funded schools has advanced to the point that it includes only those individuals who are certificated and, as of 1996, registered with the OCT. While this seems exclusionary to some, it ensures that there is a standard of practice. This procedure has evolved over time. In the 1800s, first, second, and third class teaching certificates were employed, each indicating a particular level of teaching and learning. At times in the 1900s, short-term training periods were introduced to permit individuals to teach. Currently, there are still short-term programs in which individuals are certificated for specific teaching assignments.

Conclusions Regarding the General Teaching Council for Scotland
and the British Columbia College of Teachers

H. Gordon McIntyre was quoted earlier: "One of the difficulties [is that] for the council to get powers means that someone else has to give them up." The themes of "power" and "control" override much of the discussion concerning the colleges established for Scotland and British Columbia. The Government in Scotland actually lost more power than it had intended to in

establishing the GTC because the Wheatley Commission decided that the Teaching Council would have partial control over teacher certification and registration rather than total control over registration. The Government would have preferred a report that gave less control to the professional council. In its infancy, the GTC flexed its muscles in some early activities, since now the Council was now part of the larger education community and wanted to present itself as a partner in education. In British Columbia, the creation of the BCCT divested the Government of all aspects of certification and registration, other than what is provided for in legislation. The Government looked toward dividing the membership of the BCTF and conquering it in introducing Bills 19 and 20.

The Scottish teachers also wanted control with a majority of the members on the Council from the teaching profession (i.e. teachers from primary and secondary schools) and they succeeded by introducing an amendment to legislate an increased teacher membership. The British Columbia Council has also had amendments to its governing legislation. Therefore, it may not be surprising if the OCT Governing Council requests amendments to the Ontario College of Teachers Act.

The unions/federations in both Scotland and British Columbia believe they have an element of control over their membership since they run a slate of candidates who are elected by the full teaching body and further believe that the union/federation message is being presented to both councils. However, this is not completely fact. Members of both Governing Councils have voted in opposition to what their particular unions advocated. In British Columbia, while the BCTF runs a slate of candidates, some of the elected Council members are not on the BCTF

slate, run independent of the Federation, and are elected. Thus, it can be concluded that the members of the Governing Council while members of the teachers' federations or unions will vote contrary to federation or union stance.

This study shows that there are two conflicting opinions regarding the two Councils. Whereas the unions in Scotland are generally supportive of the GTC, the Federation in British Columbia is opposed and still maintains that resolution. The BCTF stance can be interpreted in one of several ways: either it hopes that a future government will disband the BCCT, that it has entrenched itself in its position so deeply that it cannot change its stance, or that the BCCT is an educational body that is "just there" and will be tolerated.

The role of the unions/federations is to be protective of its members as Orza and Sykes contend. Initially in Scotland, the EIS was concerned about loss of its authority and influence—a loss of power. The BCTF, while not stating that it believed that it would lose power, may have had the same concerns. Certainly in British Columbia, concerns about multiple jeopardy and due process were voiced by the BCTF.

The literature review indicates that one of the elements of a "self-governing body" is public representation on the Governing Council. Non-teacher membership on the Scottish Council is much greater (38.7%) than on the BCCT (25%). This fact gives the semblance of greater public (which may be read as non-teacher) representation on the Scottish Council than the BCCT.

Aucoin (1977), in the literature review, discusses the concept of Government off-loading of responsibilities that do not serve the Government's immediate purpose. In both Scotland and British Columbia, this had occurred since both have shed the high cost of certification and registration and have given it to those who will financially benefit from being certified and registered.

The communication element can be seen in teacher support for these Councils and may be best played out in teacher response to Council elections. In Scotland, the current voter turnout is approximately 32%, while in British Columbia it is 30% to 40% depending the individual zone turnout. Teachers have limited awareness of the GTC and BCCT; basically both may be described as non-entities in the daily lives of teachers who are much more focused on the events in their classrooms. The time that the Council really comes to mind for teachers occurs when the yearly dues are deducted from wages.

Conclusions Regarding the Development of the Ontario College of Teachers

The themes of power and control have dominated the discussions of a College of Teachers for Ontario. Historically, teachers in Ontario have sought a greater control over themselves and, while they did not define it directly as self-governance, that concept was implicit. After the OTF was established in 1944, the teachers wanted self-governance but within the federation structure, and not as a separate entity. Teachers did not want to lose the OTF when self-governance discussions were being held in the 1980s. Progress to a College of Teachers model was prevented because of wranglings between the Government and the Federations.

The issues that have beset both the General Teaching Council for Scotland and the British Columbia College of Teachers have also beset the Ontario College of Teachers. However, the OCT has learned from the early implementation days of the GTC and BCCT. What ensured that the College would exist was the announcement from Dave Cooke, the Minister of Education and Training, instituting a college of teachers and not establishing a study group to determine if there would be such an organization. This action differed from the Scottish process where a committee was established to examine the idea of a general teaching council and from the British Columbia process where a college of teachers was set-up unilaterally. The establishment of the Ontario College of Teachers Implementation Committee ensured that all the elements would be in place before the College would actually begin to function.

Aucoin is supported in his conclusion that self-governance of a profession is useful for governments. The current Ontario Government does not want to accept the cost of directly exercising control over professionals and their work; thus off-loading the cost to the professionals ensures that the Government is free from this expense. With the establishment of the OCT, the Government will no longer bear the expense associated with teacher certification, registration, and discipline. In an indirect way the Government of Ontario has further recognized teaching as a profession when it off-loaded the cost of teacher certification, etc. since only a profession can undertake these activities. Aucoin has also suggested that self-governing means being established as a profession. Therefore, since the Government has conferred self-governance on teaching, this action reaffirms the Government's 1944 decision in proclaiming the Teaching Profession Act that teaching is indeed a profession.

At times, the power struggle between the Federation and the Government has left both entrenched in their positions. The lobbying activities of the Federation with various Members of Provincial Parliament have resulted in a change in the Government's stance as noted with the desire of the government to implement a college of teachers under Bette Stephenson. At the Standing Committee for Social Development hearing on Bill 31, the teachers' federations voiced concerns over a number of issues it felt were unacceptable to the teachers. The Government changed its position and the teachers achieved partial success in amending Bill 31 to conform more with what they wanted.

Implications and Recommendations Regarding Self-Governance in Other Jurisdictions

As has been documented, each of the three jurisdictions--Scotland, British Columbia, and Ontario--developed in similar and disparate ways to establish a self-governing teachers organization. The GTC developed from grassroots approach; the BCCT was developed in secrecy; the OCT has been discussed over many years and suggested in several forms. The grassroots movement favourably disposed teachers to accepting a self-regulatory body which is not directly allied with the government of the day. However, no consistency has been shown by governments in establishing a self-governing organization for teachers.

Of the three, the GTC has received greater union support; the leadership of the two major unions in Scotland believe that the GTC is a functional bulwark against Government and protects the profession from interference by the civil service. Neither the Ontario Teachers' Federation and its affiliates nor the British Columbia Teachers' Federation would make such a statement

about their respective Colleges of Teachers. To be successful, any jurisdiction wishing to propose a College of Teachers would find it useful to have the support of the teachers' federations and associations before it establishes a College of Teachers.

The Wheatley Commission to establish the GTC involved teachers in the discussions. Since those directly affected by the ultimate decision to recommend the creation of the GTC voiced their opinion and were able to vote on the various issues discussed, the teaching force in general could recognize that teachers contributed to the development of the GTC. This is an important issue: if those most affected by the outcome are not included in the initial and subsequent discussions leading to the final result, acceptance of the final decision will be limited, given begrudgingly (if at all), and will achieve limited success.

The important role of communication has been discussed regarding established self-governing councils. At issue also is the role of communication while the process of developing a self-governing council unfolds. Stakeholders must be kept informed at each stage of development. This ensures that the process is not only perceived to be open but is truly open. Open communication will allow future members of the College to understand what self-governance is and why it is necessary for the profession.

The question of membership on the Governing Council requires resolution early on since this is a contentious issue for members. All three jurisdictions have had lengthy discussions regarding this matter. The McRuer Report advocates that there be public representation on the Governing Council and all three Councils include public representatives either appointed by

other affected organizations (e.g., faculties of education) or Government which ensure that the College is open to public scrutiny. Public representation is essential.

The issue of teachers as the majority of Council members has not been one of great concern to the GTC and the BCCT in their functions. While some members, at times, espouse federation and teacher association ideas at the discussion table when particular actions are warranted (i.e. loss of certification or issuance of citation), the actions taken by the Governing Council shows that it will not condone recalcitrant members. It is the view of the GTC that its members “leave their union hat at the door” (McIntyre, 1996) to ensure that students in schools are well served.

Conclusions and Recommendations Regarding

Teacher Response to the Ontario College of Teachers

The response rate to the survey conducted indicates that teachers are very concerned about a College of Teachers since they took time in May 1996--generally a very active time in schools--to respond to the survey. The high response rate also supports this conclusion.

Teachers who have had one or two years part-time teaching experience are more undecided about the College of Teachers. Depending on how long ago these teachers were part-time, they may still feel that they are not as included in the activities of the school and not receive all the information that their colleagues received. They may continue to feel somewhat

marginalized. It can be concluded that for these teachers to change their response or attitude to the College, the College must actively promote itself.

Sutherland, as registrar of the GTC, believes that open communication lines are essential for a professional college. This study shows that Ontario's teachers use the media and the Federations as their main sources of information. Given that these are the two main avenues of communication with teachers, the Ontario College of Teachers would do well to examine how it can reach more teachers with its information and the Federations would do well to examine how they can reach more of its members.

From the results of the survey it can be concluded that almost two-thirds of the teachers are opposed to the College of Teachers. If this hardening of opinion continues, the College and its Governing Council will find themselves in a difficult position in explaining their actions and decisions to the membership. Teachers require accurate and reliable information if the trend to opposition to the College is to be stopped. Teachers need to see that the College is able to be the type of self-governing agency that other professions have.

Professional Standards

There is a high positive response from teachers recognizing that the profession has the knowledge and expertise to set standards of practice. That particular statement received more support from the respondents than any other statement of the individual items. That teachers are prepared to undertake the responsibility of setting professional standards is further supported by

anecdotal comments made by teachers. Foster (1986) also supports that as teachers are recognized as professionals, they will want to and will set their own standards of practice. Judging of competence and conduct and accrediting professional learning programs are activities that teachers are prepared to assume.

Professional Learning

There is support for a professional learning framework to set priorities for professional learning and for a professional body to regulate teachers' qualifications. Teachers recognize that, with a conceptual framework, they can take the main concepts of professional learning but arrive at different conclusions based on their needs. Therefore, it can be concluded that teachers recognize the value of a professional learning framework and a professional body to regulate teachers' qualifications. It cannot be concluded, however, that teachers believe that the current model as suggested is the appropriate one to fulfill this function. In addition, teachers do not believe that a College will give them more say in defining the quality of professional practice and in the value and utility of professional learning.

Hargreaves' (1995) explanation of professional learning encompasses more than the formal learning (workshops, courses); it also includes informal learning. Teachers are actively involved in professional learning activities, as evidenced in this study. They participate in courses, workshops, professional reading, and other educational endeavours that may include, but are not limited to teaching courses to other teachers, sitting on committees and determining additional strategies to use with children in classrooms. The teachers reporting their professional

learning activities support Bergen's findings--that teachers' professional growth is characterized by a variety of traits among which continued self-renewal and updating in one's field of knowledge is included.

Accountability

The survey showed that teachers believe that the profession should be self-regulating and should assume responsibility for the professional learning of its members. They do not believe that public input will help to achieve accountability and credibility. Yet various writers support the idea that accountability requires public input. Browder (1973) explains that a person who occupies a role is answerable to those who authorize the role (e.g., trustees of a school board who represent the public) but teachers may see this form of accountability as being quite different from the public representation on the Governing Council of the OCT. It is the school board that is their employer. However, it is now the Ontario College of Teachers who has responsibility for teacher qualifications and, aside from the legislation, does require public input for self-governance. It can be concluded that many teachers do not understand the process of self-governance or the concerns that the McRuer Report addresses regarding accountability. Therefore, for teachers to develop this understanding, it is incumbent on the College to ensure that teachers recognize that public representation is required and, more so, why public representation is required.

OCT Support

There is a need for the College to promote itself through communication to its membership in order to turn negative teacher response to a more accepting response of the College. The teachers surveyed indicate that they are very concerned about the OCT and therefore, the College cannot disregard these concerns and fears. Efforts should be made by the College to develop a strategy to alleviate the concerns of some of its members. To determine the success of this strategy would require further study.

Teachers, the Federations, and the Government will all be affected by the OCT. Certificated teachers will be most profoundly influenced by the OCT. Teachers will support the College financially; 17 members from their ranks will represent them on the Governing Council. The federations, specifically the Ontario Teachers' Federation will lose some of its power related to the discipline of teachers. The government has off-loaded the costs of teacher certification, the responsibility for the regulations and teaching qualifications, and the Minister of Education and Training is removed from the disciplinary process. Both the Federation and the Ministry should realize savings.

Self-governing organizations will note, some with envy, the speed at which the OCT was established. From January 25, 1995 when Royal Commission on Learning recommended it to July 5, 1996 when it received Royal Assent. The entire process was completed in 18 months. Others may express horror that it was created so quickly. However, as has been explained, it has been in incubation for a long period of time. There may be much that emerging self-governing

organizations may learn from the College of Teachers experience. One area that they may wish to examine is the use of the Regulated Health Profession Act as a framework for the legislation governing the College of Teachers.

One question now remains: why has it taken so long to emerge? There are a number of conclusions that one may draw from the study to provide an answer. There is some evidence to support the possibility that both forms of politics (formal--Politics and informal--politics) played a role in hampering the development of the OCT. It becomes an issue of power and control and both Federations and Governments with their respective public and hidden agendas were involved. The attempts to establish a self-governing organization were often thwarted by the "other side" which, at the time of bringing the idea forward, did not like it or would not respond to it. Strong and at times conflicting personalities may also have contributed to the political aspect of the College's development (or lack thereof).

The history of teaching in Ontario shows that individuals were often concerned with economic elements to become concerned with self-regulation. Time and again when the issue of collective bargaining comes forward, the most public aspect of it deals with the economics.

The lack of respect accorded to teaching as a profession may be included as a reason why it has taken so long for self-governance to occur. Up until the early sixties, Ontario had a low standard of teacher preparation; the short summer courses after high school did little to engender confidence in teaching.

Public attitude about what is required to teach may have influenced the long progress to self-governance. Since every person, at least to the age of sixteen in Ontario, must be in school and everyone over that age has had some schooling experience, there may be a perception that anyone can teach. It is common and familiar. The requirements for entrance into teaching did not become uniform (i.e., a university degree as a minimum standard) until the early 1970s.

Areas of Future Study

The literature review was conducted to inform the study and the questionnaire. Tuohy and Wolfson have stated that there must be mechanisms for full-time continuous review of professional decision-making bodies; they question whether the appointment of lay representatives is sufficient to ensure that the interests of the public are being guarded. Does lay representation meet criteria of overturning of professional decisions that are not in the best interest of the public? More specifically, does the public representation on the College of Teachers represent the public? How is it determined that there is on-going continuous review of the decisions made by the College of Teachers?

The discussion on a distinct body of knowledge for teaching often indicates that there is no theoretical body on which the skill of the profession rests. What is the theoretical understanding that is essential to teaching? How does the education program integrate both the intellectual and practical experiences?

Humes (1980) argues that professionalism has become a controlling mechanism operating as much against the members themselves as against those lacking the requisite qualifications and training. To determine the accuracy of this argument as it relates to the College of Teachers would require a longitudinal study.

Currently there are no standards of practice set out for teachers in Ontario schools that outline what a teacher must be able to know, do or even value in teaching students. While some educators may argue that universities establish standards by outlining what is required of an aspiring teacher to enter a university's faculty of education, that does not outline what the standards of practice are. Sykes (1991) states that teaching cannot emulate other professions; therefore, in accepting that premise, the development of standards should not copy the standards of other professions. The questions to be asked are: what will be included in the standards? What will be their purpose? Who will determine what the standards are? How will they be measured?

Given the past experiences of the union/federation activities in Scotland and British Columbia, it can be concluded that the Ontario Teachers' Federation will present federation-sponsored candidates for representation on the Governing Council. To what degree do the elected representatives express federation policy at meetings? Do the elected representatives vote contrary to resolutions because these resolutions oppose Federation(s) policy? Conversely, do the publicly-appointed representatives vote contrary to resolutions because federation policy is the basis for the resolution?

One key area of study that must be undertaken deals with the effectiveness and efficiency of the College. Can a College guarantee efficiency and maintain effectiveness? Can the effectiveness and efficiency of the College of Teachers be determined? For the College to be successful, it must establish an effective working relationship with the various stakeholders in education: the Federations, Government, educational associations, other colleges of teachers, and most important, the teacher members. This would involve producing resources that would assist in developing this type of relationship. A study to determine how effective and efficient the College has become would provide additional information for their self-governing bodies and members of those bodies.

Summary

This chapter has addressed recommendations for the College of Teachers and the Federation. It has presented some answers to the question why has it taken so long; no doubt there may be other factors that have influenced the result. The next section titled “Epilogue” chronicles some of the activities the Ontario College of Teachers has undertaken since this study was completed.

EPILOGUE

The Ontario College of Teachers Act was proclaimed on July 5, 1996. Since that time and the completion of this thesis research and study, there has been much activity. Registration of educators was undertaken; the first Governing Council was elected; additional staff were hired; regulations and by-laws were developed.

The first activity that the College undertook was the registration of teachers. Teachers working in school boards would be automatically registered through the school board. This was important since this membership would elect the Governing Council of the College. An advertising campaign to reach qualified teachers not teaching in publicly-funded schools occurred and brochures with membership registration form were sent to community colleges, universities, private schools, provincial schools, Ministry of Education and Training offices, and any other organization where teachers could be employed. Advertisements were found in daily newspapers and a variety of magazines and professional journals. Teachers were encouraged to register by telephone, fax, and e-mail. The processing of applications was handled by a call centre established for this purpose.

An early election of the Governing Council was essential since the College could not undertake major activities without approval of the Council. The election was called on September 16, 1996 and nominations were requested with the deadline of November 1, 1996. Teachers would represent specific geographical areas of the province. There would also be “system” members representing public schools, separate schools, and French-language schools. Supervisory officers, private schools, and faculties of education would also be represented on the Governing Council. These are distributed as outlined below along with the number of candidates nominated for the first election:

Electoral Category		Number to be Elected	Number Nominated
Northern Region	elementary	1	24
	secondary	1	13
Southeastern Region	elementary	1	23
	secondary	1	12
Central Region	elementary	1	31
	secondary	1	46
Southwestern Region	elementary	1	36
	secondary	1	155
Public School System		2	24
Separate School System		2	42
French-language System		2	7
Supervisory Officer		1	5
Private School		1	13
Faculty of Education		1	8
Total		17	439

Source: Professionally Speaking December 1996

Each individual nomination form completed for one of the elected positions on the Council required 20 member signatures to accompany it. Candidates were eligible for one position only. Candidate would receive written notice whether the nomination was accepted and on acceptance candidates were sent a handbook outlining the election and voting process.

The deadline for election was set as February 2, 1997 with the results tabulated electronically on Monday February 3. The names of the elected candidates were posted on the interactive voice response system the next day and on the College' web site.

The Ontario Teachers' Federation was still very active even after the proclamation of the legislation. At its Annual Meeting, the Board of Governors unanimously confirmed its opposition to the College and would continue to work to have the Act repealed. This response is no different from the response of the British Columbia Teachers' Federation who also wants the act establishing the British Columbia College of Teachers repealed. Nevertheless, the OTF felt that it was very important to have a voice on the OCT Governing Council. The OTF Board of Governors agreed to support specific candidates in each geographical region and sector and teachers who sought nomination on the College of Teachers Governing Council were encouraged to be candidates sponsored by the OTF.

The OTF established a policy that, as a Federation, it was opposed to College of Teachers as enacted by the legislation and would work for legislative change that would repeal the Act. In the meantime, however, it would cooperate with the College but it would attempt to get teachers sympathetic to the OTF policies elected to the Council. As Bill Martin, president of the OTF,

indicated: “Now that is has been enacted, we have to be part of it and we just want to make sure we have the best candidates in there who are going to serve the teachers of Ontario” (Teachers will co-operate with the new body, for now. September 16, 1996. Kitchener-Waterloo Record.

A3).

The sponsored candidates must accept OTF-established principles:

- a) the objects, policies, and principles of OTF;
- b) working to ensure that any person employed in an instructional role in elementary and secondary schools be a qualified teacher;
- c) working to prevent the Ontario College of Teachers from instituting any form of mandatory professional development for teachers; and
- d) attending meetings convened by OTF. (OTF correspondence to teachers, September 23, 1996)

Interested teachers were asked to forward a curriculum vitae, letters of endorsement, a vision statement, and indication which position they were seeking to their provincial affiliate. The provincial affiliates would determine who would be the fourteen OTF-sponsored candidates. In the meantime, the OTF was encouraging all of its members to vote for the sponsored candidates. The Federation was successful; all fourteen were elected by an overwhelming number of votes. The OTF now had a voice on the Governing Council.

Thirty-two per cent of the eligible membership voted in this election with the accounting firm of KPMG reviewing the election process and auditing the electoral results. By way of comparison, the General Teaching Council for Scotland had 85 per cent (Humes, 1986) of its eligible membership vote in the first election. Since then, however, election response for the GTC has hovered in the thirty-per cent range.

The administration of the College itself continued to expand. It started with a staff of seven and it is anticipated that when fully operational, it would have a staff close to 120 and an annual budget of \$13 million. Various departments have been established. The Executive Department has responsibility for administration, communications, policy and research, finance, business services, information systems, library, and the archives. The Membership Services Department deals with evaluation, client and customer services, and registration appeals. The Investigations and Hearings Department looks after complaint intake, investigations, and discipline. The Professional Affairs is accountable for accreditation, teaching standards, and professional learning.

The registration of teachers continued. On registration and payment of membership fee, teachers received a Certificate of Registration, a Certificate of Qualification, a membership card, and a tax receipt. The Certificate of Registration is issued once--on initial registration with the College. The Certificate of Qualification is an educator's annual licence permitting one to teach in Ontario. It replaced the Ontario Teacher's Certificate and Ontario Teacher's Qualifications Record Card (OTQRC) that were required by the Ministry of Education and Training to teach in Ontario. The Certificate of Qualification contains information on degree(s) obtained, program of teacher education, basic teaching qualifications, and additional teaching qualifications. Errors were found on numerous Certificates of Qualification that were sent to teachers. The original OTQRC displayed the correct dates when teachers were awarded certificates or degrees but the new Certificate of Qualification did not. The College has worked to correct the error. The development of the various certificates was the College's first major activity directed at individual teachers.

The Inaugural Meeting of the College occurred on May 1 and 2, 1997 with an additional meeting on June 20. Items on the agenda included the bylaws, annual membership fee, and election of members as chair and vice-chair of the Governing Council. The Act ensured that the majority of members on the various committees would be elected from the College membership. The committees--Executive, Registration, Appeals, Investigation, Discipline, and Fitness to Practise--would consist of elected College representatives and of representatives appointed by the Minister of Education. At this meeting chairs and members of these statutory committees were elected. Since then subcommittees, where required, have also been established.

The chair of the Governing Council and the Registrar have met with the Minister of Education and Training on several issues. These include changes to the qualification requirements for those who deliver education programs, introduction of requirements for a criminal records check, and to establish appropriate consultative processes with the Ministry.

The Accreditation Committee has recommended screening criminal records as a requirement for registration. This committee has planned that programs in all faculties of education will be accredited by the College for September 2000. The Investigations and Hearings committee at one time had 26 investigations underway with hearings scheduled for November 6 and 11, 1997. The Standards of Practice and Education committee met with focus groups to discuss standards of practice and professional learning framework for teachers and has prepared two articles as resource materials for the participants.

In the short time that the Council has been in place, regulations have been developed, amended, and filed and other changes have occurred. Regulation 184/97 on teacher qualifications authorized the transfer of teacher education and certification functions from the Ministry of Education and Training to the College. Regulation 72/97 deals with filling vacancies for elected members on the Council and the College's authority to request information from teachers' organizations. Another regulation defines professional misconduct of members; these definitions will be used during investigations and hearings that will be undertaken. Changes include council member appointments: the elected category - one; the appointed category - one.

The College has taken a strong stand against sections of Bill 160 that would have allowed non-certificated instructors to teach in elementary and secondary classrooms. The government agreed to remove this section of Bill 160.

Summary

The Ontario College of Teachers has been actively involved in many developmental issues as outlined. Initially the Ontario College will be in an organizational mode but eventually should move to discussions and actions on educational issues and act to fulfill their objects. It continues to be the responsibility of the Governing Council to ensure that the objects of the College are upheld.

December, 1997

Appendix A

Letter to the Principals of the Selected Schools

Dear Colleague

Professional education is the subject of my doctoral research at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education. Specifically, my thesis will investigate the development of the proposed Ontario College of Teachers and determine educators' perceptions of the planned College.

I ask for your assistance in selecting a teacher from your staff list to complete the enclosed form. From your alphabetized staff list please ask teacher number ____ to assist by providing needed data. This number has been chosen at random. All the information the teacher requires is contained in the enclosed envelope. I want to assure both you and the teacher that the response provided in the survey will be used as grouped data in the analysis and the reporting of results. Your school and your teacher will not be identified in any manner.

Your provincial federation is aware that I am requesting assistance from some principals and teachers throughout the province.

I realize that this request is an imposition on you and the selected teacher but research is important in contributing to the knowledge base that is required of professionals. Please encourage your teacher to assist in this research.

If you wish a summary of the study results, I would be pleased to provide one for you on completion. Should you have any questions or concerns, please call me at 1-519-657-6821.

Thank you very much for your cooperation.

Sincerely yours

Shirley Van Nuland

Chère collègue,
Cher collègue,

Étudiante en doctorat à l'Institut d'études pédagogiques de l'Ontario, je prépare une thèse sur l'enseignement professionnel et plus précisément sur le développement du projet de l'Ordre des enseignantes et des enseignants de l'Ontario. Mes recherches visent à déterminer les impressions des éducatrices et des éducateurs à l'égard du projet de l'Ordre.

Je souhaiterais que vous m'aidiez dans mes recherches en choisissant une enseignante ou un enseignant au sein de votre personnel et en lui demandant de remplir le formulaire ci-joint. Veuillez prier l'enseignante ou l'enseignant qui figure au numéro ___ sur la liste alphabétique de votre personnel de m'aider en me fournissant les données dont j'ai besoin. Ce numéro a été choisi au hasard, tout comme votre école l'a été. L'enveloppe ci-jointe contient tous les renseignements dont l'enseignante ou l'enseignant retenu aura besoin. Je tiens à vous assurer et à assurer l'enseignante ou l'enseignant sélectionné que les réponses au questionnaire seront regroupées et seront analysées et publiées sous forme de statistiques seulement. Ni votre école, ni votre enseignante ou votre enseignant ne seront identifiés en aucune façon.

Votre fédération provinciale est au courant du fait que je sollicite l'aide de certaines directrices et certains directeurs et de certaines enseignantes et certains enseignants de la province.

Je suis consciente du fait que cette demande exigera de votre temps, à vous et à l'enseignante ou à l'enseignant désigné, mais les recherches auxquelles vous contribuerez enrichiront la base de connaissances indispensable pour la reconnaissance professionnelle.

Si vous désirez un résumé des résultats de l'étude, je serais heureuse de vous en faire parvenir un exemplaire une fois le travail terminé. Si vous désirez poser des questions ou soulever des préoccupations, n'hésitez pas à m'appeler au 1-519-657-6821.

Vous remerciant d'avance de votre collaboration, je vous prie d'agréer, chère collègue, cher collègue, l'expression de mes sentiments dévoués.

Cordialement

Shirley Van Nuland

Appendix B

Letter to Selected Teachers

Dear Teacher

I am a doctoral student at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education researching the development of the proposed Ontario College of Teachers. Please help me by answering some questions and providing your reactions to some statements that are part of this study. Your answers and those of other educators will assist me in determining what teachers' perceptions and understandings are about the planned College of Teachers.

In this envelope, you'll find a number of items that will assist you as you assist me:

- this covering letter which explains the process;
- a separate sheet with explanations to show how I used some of the terms in the study;
- a survey entitled "The Development of the Ontario College of Teachers - Teacher Response";
- a stamped, self-addressed envelope for your return survey;
- a postcard, and
- some butterscotch drops (my personal favourite) and essential to the study!!

The survey will require approximately 10 to 20 minutes to complete. Please write directly on it; it consists of checklists, some questions, and selection of the most appropriate response.

The stamped, self-addressed envelope ensures that your results come to me at OISE. The number on the inside flap of the envelope corresponds to your school name; once your school name is "checked off" my list of schools, the envelope will be destroyed. All the selected schools are coded in this way so that I won't send a follow-up to schools whose teacher has already returned a response.

The postcard affords you an opportunity to request a summary of the study. If you'd like a copy, complete the postcard and mail it separately from your survey results. This will assist in guaranteeing your anonymity.

Anonymity is very important; it allows you to comment freely. Your responses will be completely anonymous and will be used as grouped data in the analysis and reporting of results. You and your school will not be identified in any manner. The data will be locked up when not in use and will be shredded after the study time is completed.

And the butterscotch drops are to provide a small snack for you as you read this letter and decide whether or not you'll participate and also to be enjoyed at the time that you complete the study. Please take the time to do so. Your input is critical to my research and your assistance is very important.

I have contacted your provincial federation office to ensure your president is aware of the study.

I request that you return the survey by **May 31, 1996**. Should you have any questions, comments or concerns please call me at 1-519-657-6821.

Thank you for your support and contribution to this research.

Sincerely

Shirley Van Nuland

Chère enseignante,
Cher enseignant,

Dans le cadre de mes études de doctorat à l'Institut des études pédagogiques de l'Ontario, je mène des recherches sur le développement du projet de l'Ordre des enseignantes et enseignants de l'Ontario. Je souhaiterais que vous m'aidiez dans ces recherches en répondant à quelques questions et en me communiquant vos observations au sujet de certaines notions sur lesquelles porte mon travail. Vos réponses et celles de vos collègues m'aideront à connaître les impressions des enseignantes et enseignants à l'égard du projet de l'Ordre.

Vous trouverez dans cette enveloppe tout le matériel nécessaire pour m'aider :

- la présente lettre de couverture, qui explique le processus;
- un questionnaire intitulé « Réactions des enseignantes et enseignants au développement de l'Ordre des enseignantes et enseignants de l'Ontario »;
- une feuille séparée sur laquelle figurent certaines définitions qui préciseront la signification des termes que j'ai choisis pour le questionnaire;
- une enveloppe adressée et affranchie pour me retourner votre questionnaire;
- une carte postale;
- des bonbons.

Remplir le questionnaire exigera environ dix (10) à vingt (20) minutes de votre temps. Écrivez directement sur le formulaire, qui comporte des listes avec cases à cocher, des questions auxquelles il vous suffira d'encercler la réponse qui convient le mieux, et quelques questions nécessitant une réponse un peu plus développée.

Lorsque vous aurez retourné le questionnaire dans l'enveloppe adressée et affranchie, il me parviendra directement à l'IEPO. Le numéro qui figure à l'intérieur du rabat de l'enveloppe correspond au nom de votre école. Une fois que j'aurai coché ce dernier sur ma liste d'écoles, je détruirai l'enveloppe. J'ai attribué un numéro à chaque école retenue pour l'enquête afin de m'éviter d'avoir à faire un suivi auprès des écoles où l'enseignante ou l'enseignant a déjà répondu.

Vous pouvez aussi demander un exemplaire du sommaire de l'étude en retournant la carte postale remplie. En la retournant séparément de votre questionnaire, vous garantirez l'anonymat de ce dernier.

J'attache une grande importance à l'anonymat puisqu'il vous permet de vous exprimer librement. Vos réponses resteront entièrement anonymes; les résultats seront regroupés et publiés sous forme de statistiques. Ni vous ni votre école ne sera identifié en aucune façon. Les données seront conservées sous clé pendant la durée de l'étude et seront détruites une fois l'étude terminée.

Les bonbons enfin, vous permettront de vous sucrer le bec tout en lisant cette lettre et en décidant si vous allez participer à l'étude. Sachez que votre participation est très importante pour mon étude... J'ai vraiment besoin de votre aide!

J'ai communiqué avec votre fédération provinciale afin de renseigner votre président sur mon projet.

Veillez me retourner l'étude d'ici le **31 mai 1996**. Si vous avez des questions à poser, des observations à formuler ou des préoccupations à exprimer, n'hésitez pas à me téléphoner au 1-519-657-6821.

Merci de votre soutien et de votre contribution à cette enquête.

Cordialement,
Shirley Van Nuland

Appendix C
Definitions of Terms

Accountability: specifies a relationship in which the state and its agencies are responsible to the public since they are established to protect and promote the public's interest; its essence is "good communication and genuine respect."

Accreditation: a process for assessing and strengthening academic and educational quality through voluntary peer review. It informs the public that the accredited program operates at an acceptable level of educational quality and integrity; the program accepts responsibility for periodic self-examination to improve in quality.

Competence: understanding and demonstrating the pedagogical strategies attached to knowledge/subject matter. "Good teachers must be competent in both subject matter and teaching skills."

Professional Learning: extends beyond certificated courses; includes activities that will transfer to the classroom (or appropriate setting) to benefit students and/or other learners.

Professional Learning Framework: sets clear priorities for professional learning; provides a setting in which teachers, individually and together, can establish their professional learning plans.

Self-regulatory: power to govern oneself.

Standards of Practice: clear and specific statements that articulate the expected knowledge and skills demonstrated by an educator at determined points in time.

Agrément: évaluation et consolidation de la qualité pédagogique et académique par un processus de révision volontaire au sein même de la profession. Le public est ainsi avisé que le programme agréé rencontre des normes de qualité et d'intégrité pédagogiques; pour sa part, le programme accepte la responsabilité de s'auto-évaluer périodiquement afin d'assurer une qualité constante.

Autoréglementation: avoir la responsabilité ultime de sa propre réglementation professionnelle.

Cadre de formation professionnelle: donne des objectifs prioritaires pour la formation professionnelle; établit des paramètres pour la planification, individuelle et en collective, de la formation professionnelle des enseignant(e)s.

Compétence: comprendre et appliquer les stratégies pédagogiques reliées à une matière donnée; «un bon enseignant doit connaître sa matière à fond et savoir l'enseigner.»

Formation professionnelle: inclut toutes activités qui, au-delà des cours agréés, peuvent être transposées dans la salle de classe (ou tout autre environnement propice) pour enrichir les élèves et/ou tout autre apprenant ou apprenante.

Normes de pratique: énoncés qui décrivent de façon claire et précise les aptitudes et connaissances qu'une enseignante ou un enseignant doit posséder à des moments précis de sa carrière.

Obligation de rendre des comptes: responsabilité que l'état et ses agences ont envers la protection et la promotion des intérêts publics; cette responsabilité repose sur la communication et le respect.

Appendix D
Questionnaire

The Development of the Ontario College of Teachers - Teacher Response

1. How did you learn about the Ontario College of Teachers? *Please check (✓) all that apply.*
- from my federation
 - from news media (radio, television or newspaper)
 - from discussions in the staffroom
 - from a presentation at a staff meeting
 - from a departmental or grade meeting
 - from information sent from the board office
 - from reading "The Privilege of Professionalism"
 - from the conference on the Electronic Village
 - from the announcements made by Dave Cooke, as Minister of Education and Training
 - from the announcements made by John Snobelen, as Minister of Education and Training
 - from the newsletters "Professionally Speaking" sent by the College of Teachers Implementation Committee
 - other _____

Please circle your selected response to the following two questions:

2. What was your **initial** response to the concept of having an Ontario College of Teachers?
- | | | | | |
|------------------|--------------------|-----------|---------|------------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| highly in favour | somewhat in favour | undecided | opposed | strongly opposed |
3. What is your **current** response to the concept of having an Ontario College of Teachers?
- | | | | | |
|------------------|--------------------|-----------|---------|------------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| highly in favour | somewhat in favour | undecided | opposed | strongly opposed |
4. If your **current** response is **different** from your **initial** response, please explain why-- what has caused the change?
5. In your **personal practice** as a teacher, what do you see as the likely positive aspects of having an Ontario College of Teachers? Please be as specific as you can.

Please turn to the back of this page.

In order to obtain your opinion about certain facets of the proposed Ontario College of Teachers, please read the following statements and indicate your level of agreement with each by circling the appropriate number. If you wish to make comments on any statement, feel free to do so

1 = strongly agree
2 = agree
3 = undecided
4 = disagree
5 = strongly disagree
6 = no opinion

1. The teaching profession has the knowledge and expertise to set standards of practice. Comment:	1 2 3 4 5 6	6
2. If anyone is to judge me on my competence, I'd like another teacher to be the one. Comment:	1 2 3 4 5 6	6
3. It's time that the teaching profession becomes be self-regulatory. Comment:	1 2 3 4 5 6	6
4. I believe that the existing proposal for an Ontario College of Teachers should be supported. Comment:	1 2 3 4 5 6	6
5. The teaching profession is best able to judge the conduct of its members on behalf of the public. Comment:	1 2 3 4 5 6	6
6. The only way the profession will achieve accountability and credibility is with direct public input. Comment:	1 2 3 4 5 6	6

7. The teaching profession should take responsibility for the ongoing professional learning of its members. Comment:	1 2 3 4 5	6
8. A professional learning framework is necessary to set clear priorities for professional learning. Comment:	1 2 3 4 5	6
9. The College of Teachers will give teachers more say in defining the quality of professional practice. Comment:	1 2 3 4 5	6
10. The College of Teachers will give teachers more say in the quality and utility of continual professional learning. Comment:	1 2 3 4 5	6
11. I don't need a College; I am best able to judge my professional learning needs. Comment:	1 2 3 4 5	6
12. Teachers should be responsible for accrediting the groups that deliver professional learning programs. Comment:	1 2 3 4 5	6
13. Regulating teachers' qualifications should be the responsibility of a professional body. Comment:	1 2 3 4 5	6
14. A self-regulating College of Teachers is a significant step forward for the profession of teaching. Comment:	1 2 3 4 5	6

Please provide the following demographic information on the last two pages.

Age Range: Circle the appropriate response.

20-24 25-29 30-34 35-39 40-44 45-49 50-54 55-59 60+

Sex: Male Female

Teaching Experience: Complete the blanks.

Position in school (classroom teacher, librarian, department head, etc) _____

Number of years in fulltime teaching _____ Number of years in part-time/contract teaching _____

Number of years in another occupation(s) prior to teaching _____

Name or title of position prior to teaching _____

Number of years teaching outside Ontario (if applicable) _____ Which jurisdiction? _____

Elementary School: **Current** grade(s) taught

Secondary School: **Current** courses this semester or year

Teaching Qualifications:
Please check (✓) the appropriate one.

Ontario Teachers Certificate	
Permanent Letter of Standing	
Letter of Permission	
Provisional Letter of Standing	
Temporary Letter of Standing	
Other (please explain)	

Educational Qualifications:
Please check (✓) the appropriate one(s).

Bachelor of Arts / Science, etc.	
Bachelor of Education	
Master of Arts / Science, etc.	
Master of Education	
Doctor of Philosophy	
Doctor of Education	
Other (please explain)	

Additional Qualifications: *Please indicate which additional courses you have taken to:*

Specialist Certificate (or equivalency); Part II (or equivalency) toward Specialist Certificate; Part I (or equivalency) toward Specialist Certificate:

Other:

In the past year I have undertaken these professional learning activities that are related to my classroom teaching (or, if not in a classroom, learning activities related to my professional work):

If you wish to make any additional comments, please do so.

Please return your response by May 31, 1996 in the stamped envelope provided.

Thank you for taking your time to assist in my thesis research.

Réactions des enseignantes et enseignants au développement de l'Ordre des enseignantes et des enseignants de l'Ontario

1. Comment avez-vous appris l'existence du projet de l'Ordre des enseignantes et des enseignants de l'Ontario? *Cochez (✓) toutes les cases pertinentes.*

- par votre fédération
- par la presse (radio, télévision, journaux)
- dans la salle des professeurs
- lors d'une présentation pendant une réunion du personnel
- lors d'une réunion de département ou par cycle
- par la documentation diffusée par le conseil scolaire
- en lisant « La reconnaissance professionnelle : un privilège »
- lors de la conférence au Village électronique
- par les annonces du ministre de l'Éducation et de la Formation, M. Dave Cooke
- par les annonces du ministre de l'Éducation et de la Formation, M. John Snobelen
- par les bulletins « Pour parler profession » diffusés par le Comité de mise en œuvre de l'Ordre des enseignantes et des enseignants de l'Ontario
- par une autre source _____

Veillez encercler votre réponse aux deux questions suivantes :

2. Quelle était votre réaction **initiale** à l'idée d'un Ordre des enseignantes et des enseignants de l'Ontario?

1	2	3	4	5
très favorable	assez favorable	indécis(e)	opposé(e)	fortement opposé(e)

3. Quelle est votre réaction **actuelle** à l'idée d'un Ordre des enseignantes et des enseignants de l'Ontario?

1	2	3	4	5
très favorable	assez favorable	indécis(e)	opposé(e)	fortement opposé(e)

4. Si votre réaction **actuelle** est **différente** de votre réaction **initiale**, pourquoi avez-vous changé d'avis?

5. Dans votre propre **vie professionnelle** d'enseignante, d'enseignant, quelles seront selon vous les conséquences positives probables de la création d'un Ordre? *Veillez fournir autant de détails que possible.*

Veillez fournir aussi les précisions au verso.

6. Dans votre propre **vie professionnelle** d'enseignante, d'enseignant, quelles seront selon vous les conséquences négatives probables de la création d'un Ordre? Veuillez fournir autant de détails que possible.

7. Quelles seront selon vous les conséquences positives de la création d'un Ordre pour l'ensemble de la **profession enseignante**? Veuillez fournir autant de détails que possible.

8. Quelles seront selon vous les conséquences négatives de la création d'un Ordre pour l'ensemble de la **profession enseignante**? Veuillez fournir autant de détails que possible.

9. Selon vous, quelles seront les conséquences à long terme de la création d'un Ordre sur vous en tant qu'enseignante, qu'enseignant?

Veillez lire les énoncés suivants qui portent sur certains aspects du projet de l'Ordre des enseignantes et enseignants de l'Ontario, et indiquer à quel point vous êtes d'accord ou désaccord en encerclant le chiffre approprié. N'hésitez pas à ajouter des observations dans les cases ou au verso si vous le désirez.

1 = tout à fait d'accord
2 = d'accord
3 = indécis(e)
4 = pas d'accord
5 = pas du tout d'accord
6 = sans opinion

1. La profession enseignante a les connaissances spécialisées voulues pour établir des normes de pratique. Observations :	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Si je dois être jugé(e) sur ma compétence, je voudrais que ce soit par un ou une collègue enseignant. Observations :	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. La profession enseignante doit être autoréglementée. Observations :	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Je considère que le projet existant de l'Ordre des enseignantes et des enseignants de l'Ontario doit être appuyé. Observations:	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. C'est la profession enseignante qui est la mieux placé pour juger la conduite de ses membres au nom du public. Observations :	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Ce n'est qu'avec la participation directe du public que la profession assurera l'obligation de rendre des comptes et obtiendra la crédibilité. Observations:	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. La profession enseignante doit assumer la responsabilité du perfectionnement professionnel continu de ses membres. Observations :	1	2	3	4	5	6

8. Un cadre de formation professionnelle est nécessaire pour établir des priorités claires pour la formation professionnelle. Observations :	1 2 3 4 5	6
9. L'Ordre permettra aux enseignantes et enseignants de faire davantage entendre leur voix pour définir en quoi consiste une pratique professionnelle de qualité. Observations:	1 2 3 4 5	6
10. L'Ordre permettra aux enseignantes et enseignants de faire davantage entendre leur voix dans le domaine de la qualité et de l'utilité du perfectionnement professionnel continu. Observations :	1 2 3 4 5	6
11. Je n'ai pas besoin d'un Ordre; je suis la au le mieux placé pour juger de mes besoins de perfectionnement professionnel. Observations :	1 2 3 4 5	6
12. Les enseignantes et enseignants doivent être responsables de l'accréditation des groupes qui dispensent les programmes de perfectionnement professionnel. Observations :	1 2 3 4 5	6
13. La réglementation des qualifications des enseignantes et enseignants doit être la responsabilité d'un organisme professionnel. Observations :	1 2 3 4 5	6
14. La création d'un Ordre des enseignantes et des enseignants autoréglementé constitue un grand pas en avant pour la profession enseignante. Observations :	1 2 3 4 5	6

Veillez fournir les précisions démographiques suivantes :

Groupe d'âge : *Encerclez la réponse correcte.*

20-24 ans 25-29 ans 30-34 ans 35-39 ans 40-44 ans 45-49 ans 50-54 ans 55-59 ans 60+ans

Sexe : masculin féminin

Expérience d'enseignement : *Remplissez les tirets.*

Position à l'école (enseignante or enseignant en salle de classe, bibliothécaire, chef de département, etc.)

Nombre d'années d'enseignement à temps plein _____

Nombre d'années d'enseignement à temps partiel/à contrat _____

Nombre d'années au sein d'une autre ou d'autres professions avant d'entrer dans l'enseignement

Nom ou titre de la position détenue avant d'entrer dans l'enseignement _____

Nombre d'années d'enseignement hors de l'Ontario (s'il y a lieu) _____ Quelle province/quel pays? _____

École élémentaire : niveau(x) enseigné(s) cette année _____

École secondaire : cours donnés ce semestre ou cette année _____

Qualifications d'enseignement :
Veillez cocher (✓) la case appropriée.

Titres et diplômes :
Veillez cocher (✓) la (les) case(s) appropriée(s).

Brevet d'enseignement de l'Ontario		Baccalauréat ès-arts, ès-sciences, etc.	
Attestation permanente de compétence		Baccalauréat en éducation	
Permission intérimaire		Maîtrise ès-arts, ès-sciences, etc.	
Attestation provisoire de compétence		Maîtrise en éducation	
Attestation temporaire de compétence		Doctorat (Ph.D.)	
Autre (préciser)		Doctorat en éducation	
		Autre (préciser)	

Veillez fournir aussi les précisions au verso.

Qualifications supplémentaires : (*Veillez indiquer quels cours supplémentaires vous avez suivis*)

Certificat de spécialisation (ou qualification équivalente); Partie II d'un certificat de spécialisation (ou qualification équivalente); Partie I d'un certificat de spécialisation ou qualification équivalente:

Autres:

Depuis un an, j'ai entrepris les activités de perfectionnement professionnel suivantes, qui sont reliées à mon enseignement en classe :

N'hésitez pas à ajouter d'autres observations si vous le désirez.

Veillez retourner votre réponse d'ici le 31 mai 1996 dans l'enveloppe affranchie.

Merci d'avoir pris le temps de m'aider dans mes recherches.

Appendix E

Individuals Interviewed

Questions Guiding Discussion

In Ontario the following individuals were interviewed:

Ruth Baumann, Executive Assistant, Ontario Teachers' Federation;

Frank Clifford, Chair of the Ontario College of Teachers Implementation Committee;

Reg Ferland, President, Ontario Public School Teachers' Federation;

Pierre Lalonde, Executive Assistant, Ontario Teachers' Federation;

Earl Manners, President, Ontario Secondary School Teachers' Federation;

Sister Alice Marie McDonald, former committee member of the Provincial Committee on Aims and Objectives of Education (1968);

Dr. Bette Stephenson, former Minister of Education, Ministry of Education for Ontario; and

Margaret Wilson, Registrar Designate, Ontario College of Teachers.

In British Columbia the following were interviewed:

Bill Broadley, Past Chair, British Columbia College of Teachers;

Earl Cherrington, Acting Deputy Registrar, British Columbia College of Teachers;

Marie Kercham, Acting Registrar, British Columbia College of Teachers;

Margaret Ross, Staff, Assistant, British Columbia Teachers' Federation;

Dr. Nancy Sheehan, Dean, Faculty of Education, University of British Columbia; and

Various members of the BCCT Governing Council.

In Scotland the interviewees:

Craig Duncan, Acting General Secretary, Secondary School Teachers' Association;

Fred Forster, Depute General Secretary, The Educational Institute of Scotland;

H. Gordon McIntyre, Depute Registrar (Administration), General Teaching Council for Scotland; and

Various members of the GTC Governing Council and council members.

Questions posed for the existing Colleges of Teachers:

Why was the College established?

Has this been seen as off-loading by the government? (Self-governing organization to oversee the professions; no benefit to government to keep)

What were the successes and challenges in the early days?

What are the successes and challenges in the current status?

What are current and upcoming issues?

What was the teachers' initial response ?

What is the teachers' current response?

What were the itmes of disagreement between the federation/union and the College?

What have been the amendments to the legislation?

What is the university response to the college?

Specifically, for B.C.: Why are there not more members of the council as public appointees (5/20)?

Question posed to the interviewees in Ontario:

Why has it taken so long to establish an Ontario College of Teachers?

Appendix F
Analysis of Variance Tables

Table 33
Analysis of Variance of Professional Standards (PS)

PS	Professional Standards
by REGION2	Region
AGE3	Age Group
POSITN2	Current Position
OTHEROCC	Other Occupation
with YRFT	Years Full-time Teaching
YRPT	Years Part-time Teaching
YROUTONT	Years Outside Ontario

EXPERIMENTAL sums of squares
Covariates entered WITH main effects

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects	6.423	11	.584	1.530	.126
REGION2	2.305	3	.768	2.013	.114
AGE3	1.943	2	.972	2.546	.082
POSITN2	.607	2	.303	.795	.453
OTHEROCC	.301	1	.301	.788	.376
YRFT (Covar)	.253	1	.253	.664	.417
YRPT (Covar)	1.931	1	1.931	5.058	.026
YROUTONT (Covar)	.137	1	.137	.359	.550
Explained	6.423	11	.584	1.530	.126
Residual	58.778	154	.382		
Total	65.201	165	.395		

Covariate	Raw Regression Coefficient
YRFT	-.007
YRPT	-.045
YROUTONT	.015

179 cases were processed. 13 cases (7.3 pct) were missing.

Due to empty cells or a singular matrix, higher order interactions have been suppressed.

Source of Variation: the independent variables

Sum of Squares: total between groups variance for the independent variable

DF: degrees of freedom = # of categories in the independent variable - 1

Mean Square: Sum of Squares / DF

Table 34
Analysis of Variance of Professional Learning (PL)

	PL	Professional Learning
by	EDUOCC2	Education by Other Occupation
	POSITN4	Current Position
	AGE5	Age Groups
	PANEL	Panel
with	YRFT	Years Full-time Teaching
	YRPT	Years Part-time Teaching
	YROUTONT	Years Outside Ontario

EXPERIMENTAL sums of squares
Covariates entered WITH main effects

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects	14.886	9	1.654	2.108	.033
EDUOCC2	6.064	2	3.032	3.864	.023
POSITN4	3.447	1	3.447	4.394	.038
AGE5	.485	2	.242	.309	.735
PANEL	.022	1	.022	.028	.868
YRFT (Covar)	1.056	1	1.056	1.347	.248
YRPT (Covar)	2.700	1	2.700	3.441	.066
YROUTONT (Covar)	1.103	1	1.103	1.406	.238
2-Way Interactions	12.409	13	.955	1.217	.275
EDUOCC2 POSITN4	1.726	2	.863	1.100	.336
EDUOCC2 AGE5	.761	4	.190	.242	.914
EDUOCC2 PANEL	2.052	2	1.026	1.307	.274
POSITN4 AGE5	3.976	2	1.988	2.534	.083
POSITN4 PANEL	.950	1	.950	1.211	.273
AGE5 PANEL	3.015	2	1.508	1.922	.150
Explained	27.294	22	1.241	1.581	.060
Residual	101.996	130	.785		
Total	129.290	152	.851		
Covariate	Raw Regression Coefficient				
YRFT	.013				
YRPT	.050				
YROUTONT	.044				

179 cases were processed. 26 cases (14.5 pct) were missing.
Due to empty cells or a singular matrix, higher order interactions have been suppressed.

Table 35
Analysis of Variance of Accountability (AC)

	AC	Accountability
by	REGION2	Region
	AGE2	Age
	POSITN2	Current Position
	OTHEROCC	Other Occupation
	PANEL	Panel
	EDUQUAL	Education Qualifications
with	YRPT	Years Part-time Teaching
	YRFT	Years Full-time Teaching
	YROUTONT	Years Outside Ontario

EXPERIMENTAL sums of squares
Covariates entered WITH main effects

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects	9.162	15	.611	1.025	.433
REGION2	2.944	3	.981	1.647	.181
AGE2	.615	3	.205	.344	.794
POSITN2	3.111	2	1.555	2.611	.077
OTHEROCC	.028	1	.028	.047	.829
PANEL	.448	1	.448	.753	.387
EDUQUAL	1.393	2	.697	1.169	.314
YRPT (Covar)	.800	1	.800	1.343	.249
YRFT (Covar)	.002	1	.002	.003	.955
YROUTONT (Covar)	.001	1	.001	.002	.960
Explained	9.162	15	.611	1.025	.433
Residual	80.424	135	.596		
Total	89.586	150	.597		
Covariate	Raw Regression Coefficient				
YRPT	.030				
YRFT	-.001				
YROUTONT	.002				

179 cases were processed. 28 cases (15.6 pct) were missing.

Due to empty cells or a singular matrix, higher order interactions have been suppressed.

Table 36
Analysis of Variance of Ontario College of Teachers (OCT)

by OCT Ontario College of Teachers
 REGION2 Region
 POSITN3 Position3
 EDUQUAL EducationQualifications
 OTHEROCC OtherOccupation
 with YROUTONT YearsOutsideOntario
 YRTOT TotalYearsofTeaching

EXPERIMENTAL sums of squares
 Covariates entered WITH main effects

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig of F
Main Effects	24.380	9	2.709	2.132	.030
REGION2	6.356	3	2.119	1.667	.177
POSITN3	6.083	1	6.083	4.787	.030
EDUQUAL	1.654	2	0.827	0.651	.523
OTHEROCC	4.771	1	4.771	3.755	.055
YROUTONT(Covar)	0.785	1	0.785	0.618	.433
YRTOT(Covar)	6.157	1	6.157	4.845	.029
Explained	24.380	9	2.709	2.132	.030
Residual	190.619	150	1.271		
Total	214.998	159	1.352		

Covariate	Raw Regression Coefficient
YROUTONT	.035
YRTOT	.024

179 cases were processed. 19 cases (10.6%) were missing.

Due to empty cells or a singular matrix, higher order interactions have been suppressed.

Appendix G
Tables 37 and 38

Table 37
 Years of Full-Time Teaching by Age Group for Respondents Who Held Another Occupation Prior to Teaching

Years of Full-Time Teaching	Age Group												Total	
	20 - 29		30 - 39		40 - 49		50 - 59		#	%				
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%						
None	1	50.0										1	1.5	
1 - 5	1	50.0	4	26.7	2	6.3	1	6.3				8	12.3	
6 - 10			9	60.0	5	15.6	1	6.3				15	23.1	
11 - 15			1	6.7	4	12.5	1	6.3				6	9.2	
16 - 20			1	6.7	12	37.5	1	6.3				14	21.5	
21 - 25					8	25.0	5	31.3				13	20.0	
26 - 30					1	3.1	7	43.8				8	12.3	
> 30														
Total	2	100.0	15	100.0	32	100.0	16	100.0				65	100.0	

Table 38
Years of Full-Time Teaching by Age Group for Respondents
Who Did Not Hold Another Occupation Prior to Teaching

Years of Full-Time Teaching	Age Group								Total	
	20 - 29		30 - 39		40 - 49		50 - 59			
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
None										
1 - 5	6	75.0	4	15.4	1	2.0			11	9.8
6 - 10	2	25.0	15	57.7	7	14.3			24	21.4
11 - 15			6	23.1	6	12.2	2	6.9	14	12.5
16 - 20			1	3.8	13	26.5	2	6.9	16	14.3
21 - 25					11	22.4	1	3.4	12	10.7
26 - 30					11	22.4	11	37.9	22	19.6
> 30							13	44.8	13	11.6
Total	8	100.0	26	100.0	49	100.0	29	100.0		100.0

- The relationship between age and years of full-time teaching experience is virtually identical for respondents who held other jobs prior to teaching and respondents who did not.
- In both cases there is a strong and statistically significant relationship between age and teaching experience (a measure of correlation, Cramer's $V = 0.64$ for both groups, $p < 0.000001$), reflecting the fact that older teachers have more years of teaching experience.
- The one respondent with no full-time experience (ie., teaches part-time only) held another occupation prior to teaching.
- The 13 respondents who have taught for over 30 years went straight into teaching (no prior occupation).

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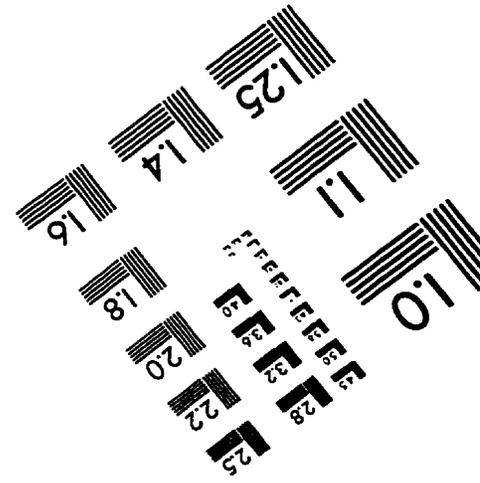
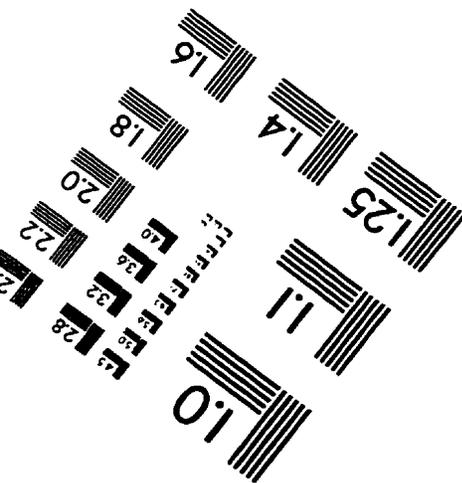
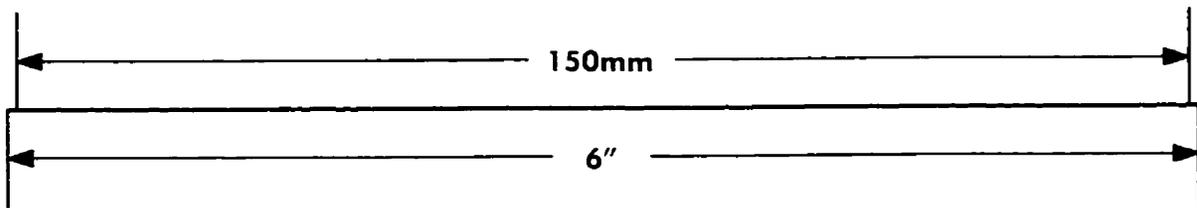
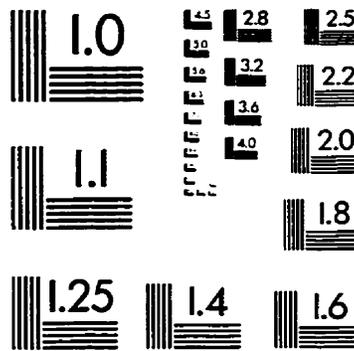
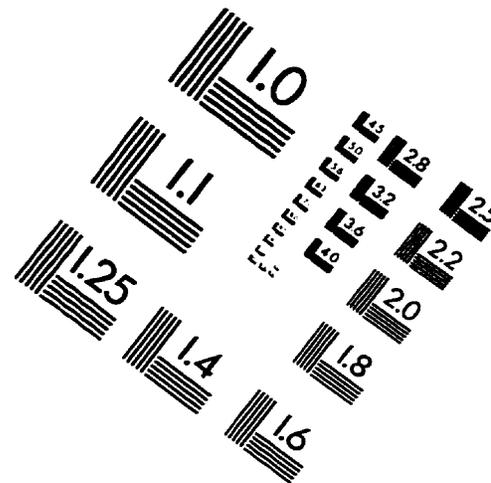
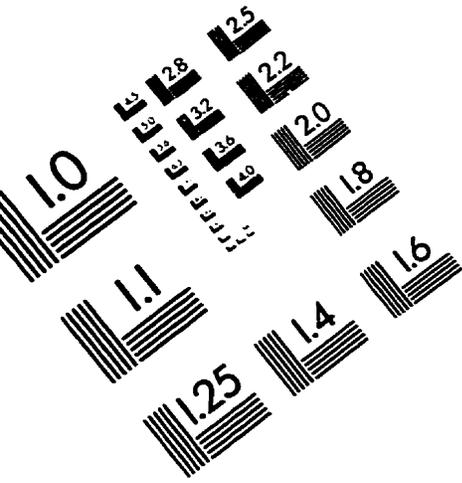
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